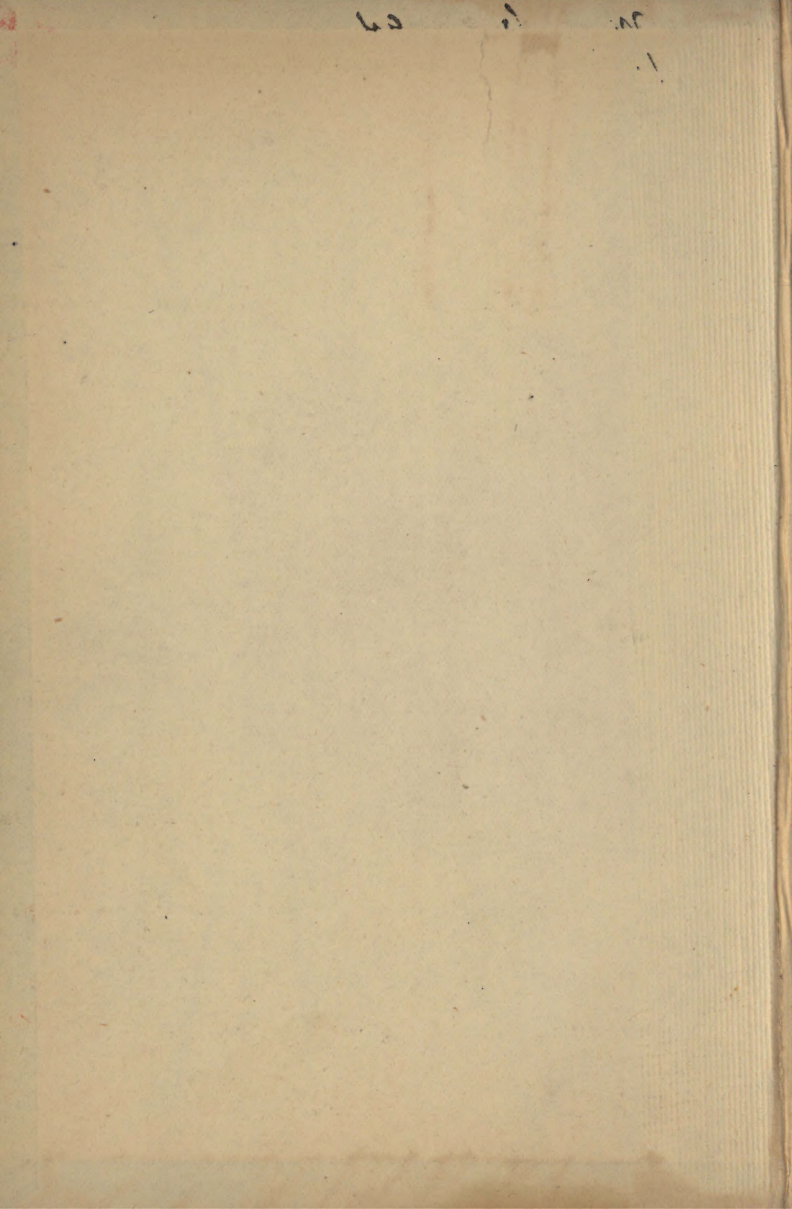


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15

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FOR BEGINNERS.

BY

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EDITED FOR THE SYNDICS OF THE UNIVERSITY PRESS.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR FOR BEGINNERS.

CHAPTER I.

THE SCOPE AND DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

1. **Importance of the Study of English Grammar.**—When boys and girls begin to learn English Grammar, they are apt to start with a prejudice that the study is likely to prove useless and certain to prove dull :—useless, because Grammar is supposed to “teach a person how to speak and write correctly,” and they can speak and write correctly enough already; dull, because grammarians, like the men of whom Jack Cade complained, “usually talk of a noun and a verb,” and in talk of this sort there is not much charm. Now, the dullness of a subject is a matter of personal taste, and about tastes it is idle to dispute. If anybody finds Grammar dull, he has a right to his opinion and a right to express it. But the usefulness of a subject is a question not of taste but of fact, and a word or two may be said with advantage at the outset, in answer to the inquiry,—What is the good of learning Grammar?

In the first place, as one part of the business of Grammar is to deal with correct forms of expression, and to point out, not merely that some forms are wrong, but also why they are wrong, it is clear that a person who has studied Grammar is more likely to avoid common errors in speech and writing than one who has not. The habit of mixing with educated people, and of reading well-written books, will doubtless do vastly more, than can be done by

studying Grammar, to keep a man from making grammatical blunders ; but the study of Grammar will help.

We can give much better reasons than this, however, for occupying ourselves with English Grammar. It is by means of the English language that we carry on trains of thought in our own minds, and convey our meaning to the minds of other people. Time and trouble will therefore be well spent in learning something of the nature of an instrument, which performs services of such great importance. An artisan, who is occupied year after year in using a complicated piece of machinery, must be a dull drudge, if his curiosity is never aroused about the way in which the machine performs its work. An artisan, whose mind is active and alert, does not content himself with merely turning taps and lifting handles. He acquires a knowledge of each part of the machine, and of the service which each part contributes towards the work of the machine as a whole. This knowledge makes him a more competent mechanic, enabling him, if the machine at any time goes wrong, to put his finger on the faulty spot. It also adds to his stock of ideas, and thereby makes him a more intelligent man.

Now the English language is a complicated instrument, which is used by us all every day of our lives, and we ought to aim, not merely at using it correctly, but at using it, as an intelligent workman uses his machine, with some understanding of its nature. Consider, too, the range over which the English language extends. It is the language spoken to-day by millions in North America, in Australia, in South Africa. It is the language in which, during many centuries, great writers have given their thoughts to the world,—the language of Chaucer, of Shakespeare, of Milton, of Wordsworth, of Tennyson. Its history and its character certainly have claims on our attention, and something of its history and character the study of English Grammar will teach.

2. Grammar is the science which deals with language and its correct use. By a science we mean

a collection of facts and principles arranged in an orderly fashion. Accordingly, English Grammar brings together facts concerning the English language, and states the principles which are observed when it is correctly used.

A language consists of words, which may be spoken or written. Spoken words are sounds which convey a meaning,—not mere noises like the cries of the farm-yard. Written words are composed of letters, and suggest to us these sounds. The thousands of words, of which a language consists, may be arranged in a small number of groups, according to the purpose for which we employ them. The words in some of these groups undergo slight changes which produce variations in their meanings. Words do their work, not when they stand alone, but when they are arranged in such a manner as to form sentences, or, as we sometimes say, “to make sense.”

3. **Different Parts of Grammar.**—Hence we may expect a book on English Grammar to give us information on such points as the following:—

1. Of how many simple or elementary sounds are English words composed? How may such sounds be classified? This branch of Grammar is commonly called **Orthoepy**; a better name is **Phonology**.

2. How many letters are required for a perfect English Alphabet? What are the imperfections of our existing Alphabet? This branch is called **Orthography**.

3. Into what classes do words fall when we group them according to their function,—that is, with reference to the sort of work which they do? What changes of form, or inflexions, do they undergo to indicate variations of their meaning? How are words built up? This branch is called **Etymology**.

4. When words are so placed as to form sentences, what principles must be observed, in order that the sentences may be grammatically correct? This branch is called **Syntax**.

CHAPTER II.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS IN ENGLISH.

4. Classification of Simple Sounds.—Words are significant sounds,—sounds which convey a meaning. Of such sounds we may assume that the English language contains about a hundred-and-fifty thousand. But these hundred-and-fifty thousand different sounds are formed by joining together simple or elementary sounds, of which in English there are about forty. Take, for example, the words *bat* and *but*. Both words contain three simple or elementary sounds in combination, but two of these sounds, *b* and *t*, are the same in each. Our first business will be to enumerate all these simple sounds and to arrange them in classes.

5. Vowels and Consonants.—The two principal classes consist of Vowels and Consonants. Let us ascertain how they differ in character.

Pronounce the vowel-sound of *a* in *path*, or of *e* in *feed*, or of *o* in *note*. You can utter it at the top of your voice, as the saying is. Next pronounce the *b* in *bat*, not calling it *bee*,—for ‘bee’ is merely its name as a letter of the alphabet,—but sounding it as you would do, if you were going to say *bat*, and then changed your mind and stopped, as soon as the first letter had passed your lips. Do this also with the words *dog* and *ten*, checking yourself at the end of the *d* and *t*. In this way you will produce the sounds which belong properly to *b*, *d*, and *t*. They are sounds of which you can hear hardly anything at all. Now add a vowel after the *b*, *d*, and *t*; say *be*, *day*, *toe*, and you can make yourself heard a hundred yards away.

Shall we describe a Vowel, then, as a sound which can be audibly pronounced when it stands alone, and a Consonant as a sound which is audible only when a vowel accompanies it?

Further experiments will show that this mode of distinguishing vowels from consonants breaks down. Make the sound of *zzz...* in *buzz*; or the sound of *sss...*, as if you were hissing some one; or the sound of *sh...*! as if you were telling people to be quiet; or the sound of *mmm...*? as if you were expressing your doubt respecting a statement. These sounds can be heard very well without the addition of a vowel. Yet nobody calls them vowel-sounds. In what respect, then, do they differ from vowels?

They differ in this respect. Add a vowel to a sound, such as *b*, *d*, or *t*, which is almost inaudible when pronounced alone, and the inaudible sound becomes audible. But add the sound of *z*, *s*, *sh*, or *m*, to *b*, *d*, or *t*,—say *bz*, or *dm*, or *ts*,—and your *b*, *d*, or *t* can be heard no better than before. Put this statement to the test. By performing half-a-dozen experiments yourself, you will learn much more about these matters than by merely reading many pages of print. Try to say *bm*, *dz*, *tsh*. You can hear the *m*, and the *z*, and the *sh*, but the *b*, and the *d*, and the *t* have become no more audible than they were when you tried to pronounce them alone. Let us therefore express the distinction thus:—

Consonants are sounds which will not enable us to produce other sounds.

Vowels are sounds by the aid of which any consonant can be audibly produced.

6. Pure Vowel-sounds.—Of pure vowel-sounds we have in English fifteen, though there are only five letters, or signs, with which to express them. The words in the following list illustrate these vowel-sounds.

A sounds

fat
fate
father
fall
fare
want

E sounds

fed
feed

I sound

pin

O sounds

not
note

U sounds

but
pull
fur
rude

7. Semi-vowels.—The sounds of *w* and *y* are commonly called Semi-vowels.

When *w* and *y* are immediately followed by a vowel in the same syllable, they represent sounds which are something like consonants. Say *wit*, and let your voice linger on the *w*. The sound given to the *w* closely resembles the sound of *oo* in *cool*, or of *u* in *rude*. Pronounce slowly *oo-it*: then increase the speed as you repeat the word, and you will find that you are saying *wit*. In like manner pronounce slowly the word *yes*, and you will recognise in the sound of its *y* the long *e* sound of *feed*. Listen to a person who answers a question with a hesitating ‘yes,’ and you will hear that he says ‘*ee-es*.’ But when the word is uttered at ordinary speed, the long vowel-sound at the beginning glides into a closely allied consonantal sound.

8. Diphthongs.—Two vowel-sounds which run together in pronunciation are called Diphthongs.

Bear in mind that in this chapter we are talking of sounds, not of letters. If you were asked to name a true diphthong in English, you would probably give as an example the *æ* in *Cæsar*; but your example would be wrong. The *æ* in *Cæsar*, as we pronounce the word, is no diphthong in sound: it is a pure vowel,—the long *e* which we have in *feed*. Whether we spell this sound with *æ* as in *Cæsar*, or with *ea* as in *meat*, or with *ie* as in *siege*, or with *ei* as in *seize*, or with one *e* as in *be*, or with two as in *feed*, the sound is in each case the same, and it is a simple sound, not a blend,—a pure vowel, not a diphthong. The true diphthongs in English are these:—

i in *fine* = *a* (in *father*) + *i* (in *pin*),
oi in *noise* = *a* (in *fall*) + *e* (in *feed*),
ou in *house* = *a* (in *father*) + *u* (in *put*),
u in *mute* = *i* (in *pin*) + *u* (in *rude*).

To these four there is sometimes added as a fifth the broader form of *i* in *fine*, which we hear in the word *aye*, when we say, ‘The Ayes have it.’

Notice carefully that, although the *i* in *pine* is a single letter, the sound is diphthongal. The same remark is true of the *u* in *mute*. When enumerating the simple vowel-sounds, be on your guard against inserting these blends, or diphthongs, in your list.

9. Consonants.—At his present stage the reader shall be excused the tedious task of classifying the Consonants, and we will content ourselves with making out an unsorted list. Take away the five vowels and two semi-vowels from our alphabet of twenty-six letters, and nineteen consonants are left. But from this remainder, for reasons which

will be given in the next chapter, four consonants, *c*, *q*, *j*, *x*, must be rejected. The number is thus reduced to fifteen, which stand in the alphabet in the following order:—

b, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, z.

This list is however incomplete. It requires the addition of five more simple consonantal sounds, and the addition of these five will bring the total number of English consonants up to twenty.

The five simple consonantal sounds for which we have no single letters are these:—the sound of *zh* in *azure*, of *sh* in *shine*, of *dh* in *thine*, of *th* in *thin*, and of *ng* in *king*. You may raise the objection that in the word *azure* the sound is already represented by a single letter,—the letter *z*. Observe, however, that the usual and proper sound of *z* is not its sound in *azure*, but its sound in *zeal* or *prize*. To mark this difference we have written the *z* of *azure* as *zh*, but the sound is not a compound of *z* and *h*: it is really a simple sound. Again, in the other sounds, represented by *sh*, *dh*, *th*, as a matter of fact there is no combination of the sound of *h* with *s*, *d*, or *t*. The sounds are in each case simple, but we write them with an *h*, because they have no separate letters of their own. In the same way, the sound of *ng* in *king* is thus indicated for want of a single sign by which to represent it; but the sound is not a blend of *n* and *g*; it is a simple sound.

QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the terms *vowel* and *semi-vowel*. Point out the vowels and semi-vowels in *wayward* and *yearly*.
2. Which of the following words contain true diphthongal sounds?—*pain*, *noise*, *new*, *people*, *yeoman*, *build*, *now*, *found*, *eye*, *clean*, *rough*.
3. Write two words in which *i* occurs as a pure vowel and two in which it occurs as a diphthong. Show in the same way that *u* may stand for a pure vowel or for a diphthong.
4. From the list contained in § 6 select the word illustrating the vowel-sound which is represented by the italicised letter or letters in each of the following words:—*flaw*, *clerk*, *sew*, *stern*, *flood*, *plaid*, *bury*, *pretty*, *what*, *fruit*, *wolf*, *love*, *chief*, *leopard*, *women*, *door*, *shoe*, *could*, *broad*, *day*, *guard*, *guarantee*, *marine*, *busy*, *carriage*, *soul*, *manœuvre*, *learn*, *does*, *aunt*, *haunt*, *journal*, *tow*, *prove*, *fête*.
5. If we had single letters to represent the simple sounds sometimes denoted by *sh*, *th*, and *ng*, in which of the following words should we use them?—*shoot*, *disheartened*, *dishevelled*, *dishonoured*, *grasshopper*, *thick*, *hothouse*, *Worthing*, *Eltham*, *ringing*, *engage*, *anger*, *danger*.

CHAPTER III.

THE ENGLISH ALPHABET.

10. Requirements of a Perfect Alphabet.—

We will now turn our attention to the signs, or letters, by which sounds are indicated in writing. The collection of these signs, or letters, is called the Alphabet.

A perfect alphabet would fulfil these two conditions:—

1. Every simple or elementary sound would have a separate letter.
2. No simple or elementary sound would have more than one letter.

11. The English Alphabet tested.—Is the English alphabet a perfect one? Does it fulfil these two conditions?

It certainly does not fulfil the first. There are fifteen simple vowel-sounds in the language, whilst there are only five letters to express them. Then, again, under the head of consonants, letters are lacking to represent the sounds of *zh*, *sh*, *dh*, *th*, *ng*, all of which are simple. Thus the alphabet is short of letters to the extent of ten vowel-signs and five consonant-signs,—fifteen letters in all,—and to supply the place of these we have recourse to various shifts.

Try the alphabet by the second test. Does it contain any letters which are not needed? Is it extravagant in having too much, at the same time that it is badly off in not having nearly enough?

The alphabet must plead guilty on this charge also,

though its faults in the way of excess are far less serious than its faults in the way of deficiency. It contains four letters, which would be absent from a perfect alphabet, viz., *c, q, j, x*.

Why is *c* a superfluous letter?

Because it represents no sound not already represented by *k, s*, or *sh*. Take *c* out of the alphabet, and we could write *kat, sity, speshal*, instead of *cat, city, special*, and in thus writing these words, we should be writing them according to their pronunciation.

The letters *j* and *x* would be removed for a different reason. They represent sounds which are not elementary at all. Now it is no business of the alphabet to furnish us with short-hand symbols which stand for compound sounds. The letter *j* represents a compound of *d* and the *zh* of *azure*: *jest* is really *d + zh + est*.

Similarly *x* represents a compound of *k* and *s*, or of *g* and *z*: *box* is really *bo + k + s*, *exert* is really *e + g + z + ert*.

Lastly, consider the case of *q*, which is always written with a *u* after it. In *quay* it has the sound of *k*, and in *queen* it has the sound of *k + w*. In both instances it expresses only what we can express quite well without it, and it is therefore superfluous, or redundant.

12. Extent to which our Alphabet is Imperfect.—We are now in a position to take stock of our alphabet, and of the simple sounds which it is supposed to represent.

The alphabet contains twenty-six letters, but four of these (*c, j, q, x*), we have seen reasons for rejecting as useless. This reduces the available assets of the alphabet to twenty-two letters.

On the other side of the account we have the following claims presented by elementary sounds :—

15 vowel-sounds,
2 semi-vowel sounds,
20 consonant sounds,

making a total of $\overline{37}$ elementary sounds.

Our alphabet is clearly in an insolvent condition, for it contains only 22 letters, with which to satisfy the demands of 37 sounds requiring a letter apiece.

It is customary, moreover, to put in a claim for separate letters to represent the diphthongs, though indeed the justice of the claim is not quite obvious. For diphthongs are blends, or compounds, of two sounds, and the right way of representing these blends would therefore seem to be this,—to put alongside of each other the vowel-signs which stand for the combining vowel-sounds. But in most books on Grammar you will find five diphthongs added to the list of sounds requiring separate letters, and with this addition our 37 sounds will be increased to 42 sounds, the needs of which we have to meet as best we can with 22 letters.

13. Devices for supplying the place of missing letters.—The work of some of the twenty letters which are missing is often done in a very unscientific fashion. Notice, for example, the devices in use to show that an *e* or an *o* is to be pronounced long. With their separate signs for short *e* and long *e*, short *o* and long *o*, the Greeks were in this respect better off than ourselves.

We show that a vowel is long—

1, by adding a mute *e* at the end of the word ; as *gate, note, site* :

2, by inserting an *a* after the vowel ; as *neat, coat* :

3, by doubling the vowel ; as *feed, cool*.

These three processes are illustrated by the words *mete, meat, meet*.

The want of consistency in English spelling is astonishing. Look at the following ways of representing the sound of *a* as it occurs in *fate*:—*laid, rein, say, prey, gauge, gaol, break*. Make similar illustrations for yourself of the ways in which the sound of *o* as in *no*, or of *e* as in *me*, is sometimes expressed in writing.

Then, again, observe on the other hand how the same letter, or collection of letters, stands at different times for various sounds:—how, for example, *s* has one sound in *sin*, another in *praise*, a third in *measure*, a fourth in *mansion*, and no sound at all in *isle*. Think of as many words as you can, which contain the combination *ough*, pronounced differently in each.

The result of our inquiry compels us to condemn the English alphabet, as (1) Defective, (2) Redundant, (3) Inconsistent.

14. Why is English spelling so difficult?—

1. Because the alphabet is defective, and its deficiencies are supplied by different devices in different words.
2. Because our spelling has been pretty well fixed for nearly three centuries, whereas the pronunciation has probably changed greatly in the interval.
3. Because our words came to us from many sources, and we have kept the spelling which they had in the languages from which we took them, whilst we pronounce the words in our own fashion.

15. Use of Capital Letters.—Before we leave the subject of the Alphabet, let us give an answer to the question,—When are Capital letters to be used?

1. At the beginning of every sentence.
2. At the beginning of every line in poetry.
3. At the beginning of quoted passages: *e.g.* He said, 'Let us go and see.'
4. For Proper names, and for the names of days, months, etc.
5. For the various names of God.
6. Sometimes for titles of officials and office:—'Secretary of the Home Department,' 'Lord Chancellorship.'
7. Sometimes at the beginning of nouns and adjectives, to call attention to their importance. Find examples in §§ 16 and 17.
8. For the pronoun *I*.
9. For the interjection *O*.

QUESTIONS.

1. What redundant letters occur in the following sentence?—'I expect to find just two quires of paper in the box.'

If these redundant letters were removed, how would you supply their places?

2. Give examples—(a) of each of the sounds represented by *th*, (b) of words in which *b*, *l*, *gh*, *k*, are written but not sounded.

3. Write six words the spelling of which differs widely from their pronunciation. Account for the inconsistency wherever you can.

[Viscount, debt, receipt, could, hymn, sovereign, chronicle, hour, schism, psalm, know, are examples. Think of some more.]

4. Mention words in which the sound of *f* is represented by *ph* or *gh*, and the sound of *sh* by *ti* or *si*.

Give examples of the use of *c* and *g* to denote hard and soft sounds.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

16. **Etymology.**—The words contained in our vocabulary may be arranged in classes, according to the kind of work which they do when we use them in sentences. Words belonging to some of these classes undergo changes of form, called Inflexions, by which the meaning of the words is modified. By certain other processes words entirely new are built up from old ones.

Take, as an example, the word *man*. We may determine, in the first place, the class of words in which it must be placed,—its Part of Speech, as we say. It belongs to one Part of Speech in the sentence ‘Man is mortal,’ and to another in the sentence ‘Man the boats.’ Then, again, the word *man*, in the sentence ‘Man is mortal,’ can be changed by inflexion into *man’s*, *men*, *men’s*, if occasion arises for these alterations, while *man*, in ‘Man the boats,’ can become *mans*, *manned*, *manning*. Construct for yourself sentences in which these forms occur. Lastly, from *man* we can derive new words, such as *manly*, *manhood*, *unman*, *mannikin*, *mankind*, *manservant*, and many more.

The branch of Grammar, which treats of words in this way, is called Etymology. We may define it as follows:—

Etymology deals with the classification of words, their inflexion, and derivation.

17. **Words must be combined to form sentences.**—When we speak or write, it is rarely the case that

words stand alone. They usually occur in sentences, and a sentence must contain more words than one. The chief purposes for which we use language are these:—(1) to make statements, (2) to ask questions, and (3) to give orders. Accordingly, most sentences belong to one or other of three kinds, respectively distinguished as (1) Declaratory, in which we make assertions about things, (2) Interrogative, and (3) Imperative.

Can you think of any exception to the statement that a sentence requires at least two words? In conversation we sometimes use a word by itself. Thus, I may say, 'John!' But then 'John!' is merely an exclamation, not a sentence. In saying 'John!' I make no statement, ask no question, give no command. Again, if somebody asks me, 'Who broke the window?' and I answer 'John,' I certainly make an assertion, but the assertion is contained in the rest of the sentence, which I suppress for the sake of saving myself trouble. The person to whom I am speaking understands that I mean, 'John broke the window,' or 'John did.' Once more, if I say, 'Go,' have we not at length reached a sentence which consists of only one word? No: in this case also there is a word which is left out, but, though left out, it is understood. For when I say, 'Go,' I mean that someone is to go. Who? 'You,' of course. 'Go' means 'Go you,' and in old English people used to put the missing word in and say, 'Go thou,' or 'Go ye,' as you may see in the Authorized Translation of the Bible.

These remarks about the combination of words in sentences belong to Syntax, but short excursions into Syntax will sometimes be necessary, because there are points connected with the Etymology of words which cannot be made clear, unless they are illustrated by sentences in which the words are used.

18. The Parts of Speech.—Let us now determine the number of classes among which the words of our language may be distributed. We make the distribution according to the different functions performed by words when used in sentences. By 'different functions' we mean the special work accomplished by words of different kinds. We shall find that there are eight classes, and these eight classes are called the Parts of Speech.

The Parts of Speech are the classes into which the words of a language fall, when they are

arranged according to their separate functions in a sentence.

19. **Verbs.**—We saw that every sentence requires at least two words. One of the two words may sometimes not be expressed, but though not expressed it is understood. To simplify matters, let us confine ourselves at present to Declaratory Sentences,—sentences in which we make assertions. Now it is plain that, if we make an assertion, there must be a word by means of which the assertion is made. This word is called a **Verb**. The term *verb* is derived from the Latin *verbum*, which means ‘a word.’ The old grammarians considered the verb the most important word in a sentence, when they gave it this name.

20. **Nouns.**—But there is another word which is generally just as important as a verb. For if we make an assertion, there must certainly be a thing about which the assertion is made. The word which stands for this thing is called a **Noun**. The word *noun* is derived from the Latin *nomen*, which means ‘a name.’ When I say, ‘Birds fly,’ I make an assertion with the verb *fly*, about things which I indicate by the noun *birds*. To ask whether noun or verb is the more necessary in this sentence seems as useless as to ask which blade in a pair of scissors does more of the cutting. We require both.

21. **Adjectives.**—A good many assertions might be made, even if we used only nouns and verbs: *e.g.* ‘Fishes swim,’ ‘Fire burns,’ ‘Sheep eat grass.’ But sweeping statements of this sort, when they happen to be true, seldom convey fresh information: they tell people only what they knew already. Suppose, however, that a statement is too sweeping: how can we limit it? Take, for instance, the sentence, ‘Exercise injures boys.’ In its present form this statement is the reverse of truth. Let us alter it to, ‘*Violent* exercise injures *sickly* boys.’ This assertion is true, and

possibly worth making. We have limited the 'exercise,' of which we spoke, to one particular kind of exercise, and we have limited the 'boys' to those boys who are sickly.

The words which limit the application of nouns in this way are called **Adjectives**, and they serve a very useful purpose. If we had no Adjectives, how could we distinguish by name different varieties of a thing? If there were no such words as *good*, *bad*, *old*, *nice*, etc., how could we express our meaning, when we wished to talk of 'good men,' 'good boys,' 'good wine,' 'good books,' and so on? We should need one noun to signify 'good man,' another to signify 'bad man,' a third to signify 'old man,'—in fact, as many different nouns as there are possible combinations of *man* with adjectives. And in like manner we should need new nouns for combinations of *boy* with these limitations, and of *wine*, and of *books*, with their limitations. No human being could retain in his mind the millions of new nouns, which would be required to do the work at present performed by adjectives.

22. Pronouns.—Consider next this sentence: 'Brown has lost the book *which his friend Jones lent him*: *they* are pommelling *each other*.' The words printed in italics are **Pronouns**: they serve instead of nouns. Observe how the sentence would read, if the use of Pronouns were forbidden: 'Brown has lost the book: Brown's friend Jones lent Brown the book: Jones is pommelling Brown: Brown is pommelling Jones.' We can make ourselves understood, but this is a clumsy way of doing it. Take another example. If Brown says to Jones, '*I* will buy *you* a new copy,' how are we to express this statement without using the Pronouns *I* and *you*? Brown must say, 'Brown will buy Jones a new copy.' All assertions would of course be made in the 3rd person only, and our ordinary form of speech would be seriously changed.

23. Prepositions.—Let us examine the following statements:—'John lives *in* London,' 'John came *from*

London,' 'John went *to* London,' 'John walked *across* London,' 'John drove *round* London.' In all these sentences we make mention of two things, John and London, and in each sentence the relation in which the two things stand is described as different. The words which mark these relations are called **Prepositions**. In any language Prepositions are an important Part of Speech, but in English they are of especial importance, because English nouns have lost nearly all their inflexions, and the place of these inflexions must be supplied by prepositions.

24. Conjunctions.—When I say, 'You *and* he are good at football *and* cricket,' I compress four sentences into one. The four sentences are these:—'You are good at football,' 'He is good at football,' 'You are good at cricket,' 'He is good at cricket.' The word *and*, which enables us to save time and trouble by joining sentences together, is called a **Conjunction**. Two sentences are joined by *if*, when I say, '(1) We will go for a walk—*if*—(2) it is fine.' Similarly *that* joins two sentences, when I say, '(1) He was afraid—*that*—(2) you were ill.' If our language contained no Conjunctions, we should have to use roundabout and awkward substitutes. Thus, instead of saying, 'We will go for a walk *if* it is fine,' 'He was afraid *that* you were ill,' we might say, 'We will go for a walk *in the case of* its being fine,' 'He was afraid *of the fact of* your being ill.'

25. Adverbs.—You will recollect that Adjectives were said to limit the meaning of nouns. In the same way, **Adverbs** limit the assertions which we make with verbs. The statement 'He played cricket' becomes more definite when we say, 'He played cricket *yesterday*,' or 'He played cricket *here*,' or 'He played cricket *well*,' or 'He *often* played cricket.' The words *yesterday*, *here*, *well*, *often*, are Adverbs. The absence of Adverbs would not cause us any great inconvenience. Thus, to take the sentences given above, we could easily express the same meaning by

saying, 'He played cricket *on the previous day*,' or '*at this place*,' or '*in good style*,' or '*on many occasions*.'

26. Interjections.—To complete the list of Parts of Speech we must mention **Interjections**. When we are moved rather more deeply than usual, we utter exclamations, such as 'Oh!' 'Ah!' 'Dear me!' Interjections are of very small importance. The grammar of our sentences would not be disturbed, nor the sense seriously affected, if they were suppressed.

27. The Parts of Speech illustrated.—The following sentence of eight words contains an example of each of the eight Parts of Speech.

'He worked diligently, but, alas, with poor results.'

Let us briefly note the function of each word.

He stands for the 'thing' about which the assertion is made. The name of this thing might be 'Jones,' or 'the boy,'—a noun. In place of the noun, we have here a **Pronoun**.

Worked is the word by means of which the assertion is made: a **Verb**.

Diligently limits the verb *worked*, describing the action more definitely by stating how he worked: an **Adverb**.

But is a **Conjunction**, joining the two sentences, (1) 'He worked diligently,' (2) 'He worked with poor results,' in the second of which the verb is supplied in thought, though not expressed.

Alas is an **Interjection**, indicating the painful feelings, for which the hearer or reader must be prepared, when the 'poor results' are announced.

With is a **Preposition**, showing us the relation which the noun *results* occupies with regard to the rest of the sentence.

Poor is an **Adjective**, limiting the noun *results*. When he worked, there must have been results of some sort,—good, bad, or indifferent. The Adjective supplies the needed qualification.

Results is a **Noun**, indicating the 'things' which he got by his work.

28. Relative Importance of the Parts of Speech.
—The Parts of Speech, arranged in order according to their importance, may be grouped as follows:—

First,—Nouns and Verbs, which are equally indispensable.

Second,—Adjectives, Pronouns, and Prepositions, the

want of any one of which would seriously cripple our powers of expression.

Third,—Conjunctions and Adverbs, substitutes for which might be found at no great inconvenience.

Fourth,—Interjections, which we could spare very well.

QUESTIONS.

1. Make sentences to show that each of the following words may be used as a different Part of Speech in different connexions:—*forg*e, *contract*, *tear*, *close*, *stone*, *bear*, *shade*, *shed*.

2. Name the Part of Speech to which each of the following words belongs:—*arrow*, *beside*, *boy*, *grow*, *often*, *though*, *through*, *vain*, *vein*, *ah*. What Part of Speech is not represented in the list?

3. What is the Part of Speech of each of the italicised words in the following sentences?—‘Cobden *headed* the movement.’—‘He had a good *head*.’—‘He is *head* boy in the class.’—‘*Iron* the clothes with a hot *iron*.’—‘I stayed on *deck*.’—‘I had a *deck* cabin.’—‘It was gaily *decked* with flowers.’—‘*Paper* the walls with white *paper*.’—‘You must *ship* the cargo in a large *ship*.’—‘The *judge* will *fine* him five pounds.’—‘I should *judge* that the *fine* will not be paid.’—‘The result will be anything but *fine*.’—‘He took three wickets in the *second over*.’—‘The ball went *over* my head, and in trying to catch it I fell *over*.’—‘I must *second* your efforts.’—‘He has promised to *forward* your letters: they will be sent *forward*.’—‘He is a *forward* boy for his age: he plays on the right wing and is our best *forward*.’—‘Take the cart *back* to the back yard and *back* it into the shed at the *back* of the stable.’—‘*Till* the ground in spring.’—‘Stay *till* evening.’—‘The thief waited *till* the man’s *back* was turned and then he robbed the *till*.’—‘*Light* the lamp.’—‘The lamp gives a poor *light*.’—‘Take some *light* refreshment.’

4. In the following sentences, substitute Adverbs equivalent to the phrases in italics:—‘She was dressed *in an elegant fashion*.’—‘*On one occasion* I asked him *in what manner* he escaped.’—‘I cannot give you an answer *at the present moment*.’—‘*From what place* have you come and *to what place* are you going?’

CHAPTER V.

NOUNS.

29. A Noun is the name of a thing.

In this definition two points require careful attention:—

(1) Avoid confusing the word and the thing. The material, paper, on which this book is printed, is not a noun; it is a thing. The name, 'paper,' by which we speak of the material, is a noun.

(2) When we say that a noun is the name of a thing, we use the word 'thing' to denote whatever we can think about. Whether our objects of thought are men and women or lifeless matter,—whether they correspond with realities in nature or are merely imaginary,—every object that we can think about we call a 'thing,' and the name of such a thing is a noun. For our present purpose we regard a man, an angel, a ghost, a dragon, infinity, nothing, as things, just as a horse and a table are things. You ask perhaps, 'How can "nothing" be a thing?' We reply that it is a 'thing' in this sense, that it is what we can think about. When we say, 'Take two from two and nothing remains,' we express a meaning by the word 'nothing'; otherwise we should be talking nonsense. 'Nothing' is what we are thinking of, and the word, by which we express what we are thinking of, is a noun.

Let us now consider the classes in which Nouns may be arranged.

30. Common and Proper Nouns.—Compare the nouns *river* and *George*. In one respect they are alike: there are many objects to which we apply the name 'river,' and many objects to which we apply the name 'George.' But there is this important difference between the two names: 'river' has a meaning, 'George' has none. If we were told that in a certain county there was a thing called a 'river,'

we should have an idea of the thing that was meant,—water flowing between banks from a source to an outfall. But if we were told that in the same county there was a thing called ‘George,’ this statement would give us no distinct information, unless we had some reason beforehand for supposing that a particular George was meant. For ‘George’ might indicate a man or a boy, a horse or a dog, a town or a fort. ‘George’ is merely a mark, which we put at our pleasure on an object, in order to distinguish it from other objects. Any other mark,—‘John’ or ‘Tom,’—would serve just as well, provided that people were told what the mark denoted. And, in fact, marks of this kind are often changed. Thus, a man may alter his name from ‘Jones’ to ‘Stanley.’ Then, if he advertises the alteration, so that his friends know that his mark is now ‘Stanley’ instead of ‘Jones,’ no confusion is caused. Suppose that a servant, whose name is ‘Ann,’ goes to a house in which there is already a servant called ‘Ann’; mistress and maid probably agree to change the old mark ‘Ann’ for a new mark, such as ‘Sarah’ or ‘Jane.’

If, on the other hand, we changed a name, like ‘river,’ which has a meaning, for another name, like ‘chair,’ which has a different meaning, and called a river a ‘chair,’ we should talk nonsense. Why? Because the word ‘chair’ suggests to our minds the idea of a piece of furniture on which we sit, and if we told a person that the Thames was a ‘chair,’ we should tell him that a stream of water was a piece of furniture; which is absurd. All objects called ‘rivers’ have certain features in common, and because they have these features, we apply to them the name. To any object from which these features are absent, the name ‘river’ is unsuitable. Thus, if a portion of water is enclosed by banks on all sides, we call it a ‘pond,’ or a ‘lake,’ or a ‘reservoir,’ not a ‘river.’ But the different objects called ‘George’ have not necessarily any feature in common, and there are various names of the same sort which would suit them equally well. Now names such as ‘river’ and ‘chair’

are called **Common Nouns**, while names such as 'George' and 'Ann' are called **Proper Nouns**.

A **Common Noun** is one which can be applied to several things in the same sense.

A **Proper Noun** is a name given to an individual as a mere distinguishing mark.

31. **Proper Nouns becoming Common.**—Proper Nouns are used as Common Nouns when they indicate a class of things resembling the individuals denoted by the Proper name. Thus, we may describe a successful general as 'a second Wellington,' or 'a nineteenth-century Marlborough,' or we may say that 'England is proud of her Marlboroughs and Wellingtons,' meaning 'soldiers like Marlborough and Wellington.' But in the sentence, 'The Marlboroughs live at Blenheim and the Wellingtons at Strathfieldsaye,' the nouns are strictly Proper, for they signify people *called* Marlborough and Wellington, not people *like* Marlborough and Wellington.

32. **Collective Nouns.**—When a number of things of the same sort are collected together, we sometimes give a name to the group. Thus we call eleven cricketers a 'team'; we call a multitude of persons a 'crowd,' or, if they are disorderly persons, a 'mob'; we speak of the sailors belonging to a ship as the 'crew.' The words *cricketers*, *persons*, *sailors*, are plural nouns; the words *team*, *crowd*, *mob*, *crew*, are **Collective Nouns**, or Nouns of Multitude.

As individuals of the same kind may be gathered together in more than one group, Collective nouns can be used in the plural number. We may speak of 'cricket *teams*,' 'rival *mobs*,' 'well-trained *crews*.'

A **Collective Noun** is defined as one which denotes a number of things regarded as forming a whole.

33. **Abstract and Concrete Nouns.**—When we are handling a billiard-ball, we observe that it has certain properties, qualities, or attributes. It is solid, white, smooth, round, made of ivory. To these qualities or attributes we can give names and speak of the *solidity*, *whiteness*, *smoothness*, *roundness*, of the ball. Apart from the ball, or some other

object, these qualities have no existence. We cannot actually separate the whiteness or the roundness of the ball and say, 'There is the ball, and here I have got its whiteness, or its roundness.' But though the qualities have no separate and independent existence, we can consider them apart from the ball. We can *abstract*, or draw off, our thoughts from the other qualities of the ball, and can fix our attention on its whiteness or roundness. The names of the qualities, which we separate from the rest in this way, are called **Abstract Nouns**: the names of the things, which possess the qualities, are called **Concrete Nouns**.

We may define them thus :—

A **Concrete Noun** is the name of a thing regarded as possessing attributes.

An **Abstract Noun** is the name of an attribute or quality of a thing.

34. **Some qualities are not supplied with Abstract Nouns.**—To many attributes or qualities no abstract names are assigned. Thus, though the ball is made of ivory, we do not speak of its *ivoriness*. The reason why such a word is absent is this: the quality is one of which we seldom have occasion to speak.

35. **Nouns often wrongly supposed to be Abstract.**—Guard against supposing that the name of a thing is an Abstract noun whenever the thing is one which cannot be touched. A noun is always Concrete, if it is the name of anything which has qualities, or attributes. You might be disposed to fancy that *ghost* and *night* are abstract nouns, because they are the names of unsubstantial, shadowy things. But this is quite a mistake. *Ghost* is a common, concrete noun,—common, because it is applicable to several objects in the same sense,—concrete, because a ghost possesses attributes, *e.g.* a certain shape, size, colour, etc. *Night* is not an abstract noun: night has qualities of its own, *e.g.* solemnity, silence, darkness. *Solemnity, silence, darkness*, are therefore abstract nouns, but *night* is a concrete noun.

36. **Some Nouns at different times Abstract and Concrete.**—Many nouns are Abstract in one of their uses and Concrete in another. *Virtue* is Abstract in the sentence, 'He is a man of virtue,' for *virtue* stands here for a single quality, like 'goodness,' or 'excellence.' But in the sentence, 'His *virtues* are well known,' *virtues* is a Common noun, for it stands as the name of several distinct things, *e.g.* courage, honesty,

truthfulness. An Abstract noun, so long as it remains Abstract, cannot be used in the plural; for an Abstract noun, such as *whiteness*, is the name of a quality which is always one and the same, and therefore singular, however many the objects may be in which it is found. *Honesty* and *goodness* are always Abstract nouns. There are no circumstances in which we could say *honesties* or *goodnesses*.

If, in any example, a noun occurs in the plural number, you may feel quite sure that, at any rate in that example, it is not an Abstract noun. But you must not conclude, on the other hand, that because a noun cannot be used in the plural number it must therefore be an Abstract noun; for it may possibly be a Concrete noun used only in the singular, such, for instance, as *noon*, *dawn*, *mud*, *hail*, *rheumatism*.

QUESTIONS.

1. What Collective Nouns denote groups composed of the following individuals?—schoolboys, masters in a school, flowers, geese, partridges, people at church, ships, books.

2. Substitute equivalent Common Nouns for the words in italics:—‘a village *Hampden*,’ ‘the *Rupert* of debate,’ ‘some mute inglorious *Milton*,’ ‘quite a *Goliath*,’ ‘a modern *Alexander*,’ ‘*Virgils* will flourish where *Maecenases* abound.’

3. Form Abstract Nouns from the following—

- (a) Adjectives:—*wild*, *slow*, *just*, *modest*, *vigilant*, *free*, *deficient*;
- (b) Verbs:—*grow*, *know*, *hate*, *marry*;
- (c) Nouns:—*hero*, *friend*, *beggar*, *knave*.

4. Refer each of the following Nouns to its class, according as it is Common, Proper, Collective, Abstract, or Concrete:—*impertinence*, *jury*, *governor*, *day*, *squadron*, *youth*, *knowledge*, *Wellington*, *talent*, *education*, *Robert*, *senate*, *Boston*, *truth*, *mob*, *England*.

5. How would you describe the Noun *Grace* as it occurs in the following sentences?—‘The Romans recognised three *Graces*.’—‘Three *Graces* have played for Gloucestershire.’—‘The senate rejected three *graces*.’—‘We shall not soon see a second *Grace*.’—‘He danced with *Grace*.’—‘He danced with extraordinary *grace*.’—‘The chaplain said *grace*.’

6. State whether the Nouns in the following sentences are used as Abstract or as Concrete:—‘*Colour* adds a charm to the scene.’—‘This silk is of a pretty *colour*.’—‘*Friendship* is love without its wings.’—‘Let us swear an eternal *friendship*.’—‘*Friendships* often terminate in disgust.’—‘*Art* is long, *life* is short.’—‘Their *lives* are passed in studying the Fine *Arts*.’—‘The *length* of the course was four miles.’—‘Cambridge won by a *length*.’—‘*Reason* requires that you should have *reasons* for your *beliefs*.’—‘*Society* will pardon much to *genius*.’—‘*Geniuses* are seldom fond of *society*.’—‘*Beauty* soon fades.’—‘Baby is a little *beauty*.’

CHAPTER VI.

INFLEXION OF NOUNS.—I. GENDER.

37. Nouns are inflected to indicate differences of Gender, Number, and Case.

Take, for example, the word *author*. If the writer, of whom we are speaking, is a woman, we change *author* to *author-ess*. The ending *-ess* is an inflexion marking Gender.

Again, if we are referring to more than one author or authoress, we say *author-s* or *authoress-es*. The endings *-s* and *-es* are inflexions marking Number.

Again, compare the two statements, 'The author destroyed the manuscript,' and 'The author's dog destroyed the manuscript.' According to the former statement, the author stood in a certain relation to the destructive action: he was himself the doer of the act. According to the latter statement, the author stood in a certain relation to the dog: he was the possessor of the animal. This difference of relation is denoted by the change of *author* to *author's*. The ending *-s* is an inflexion marking Case.

38. **Loss of Inflexions in English.**—The sum-total of the inflexions, which the words in any language undergo, constitutes its Accidence. Latin and Greek are languages in which there are many of these inflexions, and the task of learning Latin or Greek Accidence is therefore by no means an easy one. On the other hand, the inflexions which still remain in English nouns, pronouns, and verbs, are so few, that they might all be printed on a single page. Consequently, the distinctions of Gender and Case, which were marked by inflexions in English as it was spoken centuries ago, are often expressed by other means in modern English.

39. **Gender a grammatical distinction.**—Gender is a grammatical distinction, which we make in words ; and in English this grammatical distinction usually corresponds with the natural difference of sex. Not always indeed, for we often disregard the sex, when we refer to a child, or to one of the lower animals, and use the neuter pronoun *it*, instead of using *he* or *she*. But making allowance for these exceptions, we may say that an English noun is generally of the **masculine** or of the **feminine** gender, according as the object, which it denotes, is of the male or of the female sex. Things which are of neither sex,—such objects as chairs or rivers, to which the distinction of sex is inapplicable,—are denoted by nouns of **neuter** gender. ‘Neuter’ gender means ‘neither’ gender,—that is, neither masculine nor feminine gender. Some nouns, such as *parent*, *sovereign*, *attendant*, *painter*, can be used to denote persons of either sex, and are therefore said to be of **common** gender.

40. **Three ways of marking Gender.**—To denote a difference of sex, we make a distinction in language in the following ways :—

1. By Inflexion.
2. By Composition.
3. By the Use of an entirely Different Word.

(1) **Gender marked by Inflexion.**—The suffixes (*i.e.* the terminations, or endings,) of words, indicating gender may be classified thus :—

Of English origin	{	-ster, in <i>spinster</i>
	{	-en, in <i>vixen</i>
Of Foreign origin	{	-ess, Norman French, <i>countess</i>
		-trix, Latin, <i>testatrix</i>
		-ine, Greek, <i>heroine</i> ; German, <i>land-gravine</i>
		-a, Italian or Spanish, <i>signora</i> , <i>infanta</i>

English endings.—It is only in the words *spin-ster* and *vix-en* that the old English endings *-ster* and *-en* retain their force as feminine inflexions. *Spinster* properly signifies 'a female spinner': it now means 'an unmarried woman.' We have the same suffix in *songstress* and *seamstress*, but the French ending *-ess* has been added to *song-ster* and *seam-ster*, which were already feminine forms, thus making these words feminines twice over,—double-feminines, as they are called.

The *vix* of *vix-en* is the same word as *fox*, with the vowel changed and *v* in place of *f*. (In the word *wine-fat*, Mark xii. 1, an *f* occurs where we now use a *v*.)

Foreign endings.—The suffix *-ess* is the only inflexion which we use at the present day in forming a new feminine noun; e.g. *authoress*, *doctress*.

A vowel or a syllable is frequently dropped from a word to which this termination *-ess* is attached; as, e.g., in *actress*, *negress*, *tigress*, *empress*, *governess*, *murderess*, *sorceress*. On the other hand, in *baron*, *giant*, *lion*, *mayor*, *patron*, *peer*, and several others, the feminine is formed by adding *-ess* without any further change in the word.

(2) **Gender marked by Composition.**—When we make a new word by joining together two or more existing words, we call the resulting word a **Compound**. Thus *he-goat*, *cock-sparrow*, *maid-servant*, *cow-calf*, are Compounds: each part of the words has a meaning by itself. Compare with these the word *authoress*, formed from *author* by adding *-ess*. Now *-ess* has a force only when added to another word; by itself it is without any meaning; it is a mere suffix, not a word.

(3) **Gender marked by the Use of Different Words.**—In the word *author-ess*, we have an example of true grammatical Gender. The change in the meaning of the word has been brought about by the change in its form. But pairs of unconnected nouns, such as *boy* and *girl*, are not instances of true grammatical Gender: they are substitutes for it. The word *girl* is not an inflected form of the word *boy*: it is an entirely different word.

Of such pairs of different words, note the following:—

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Bachelor	Spinster	Gaffer	Gammer	Ram <i>or</i> }	Ewe
Boar	Sow	Gander	Goose	Wether }	
Buck	Doe	Hart	Roe	Sir	Madam
Bullock <i>or</i> }	Heifer	King	Queen	Sire	Dam
Steer }		Lord	Lady	Sloven	Slut
Colt	Filly	Mallard	Wild-duck	Stag	Hind
Drake	Duck	Man	Woman	Tailor	{Tailoress <i>or</i>
Drone	Queen-bee	Monk	Nun		{Seamstress
Earl	Countess	Nephew	Niece	Wizard	Witch

You may observe that in nearly all cases the feminine is formed from the masculine. In the following words, however, this order is reversed, and the masculine is formed from the feminine:—

Bridegroom was originally *bryd-guma*, 'bride's-man': *guma* meant 'man' in Old English.

Gander comes from the same root as *goose*: the German form of the word for 'goose' is *gans*.

Widower is formed from *widow*.

QUESTIONS.

1. Mention some nouns in which the termination *-ster* occurs without a feminine force.

Are there any feminine nouns without corresponding masculines?

[A few: *e.g. brunette, dowager, milliner, shrew, siren, virago.*]

2. Mention half-a-dozen nouns of Common Gender.

Quote an example of the use of each of the following Proper Nouns in compounds, to indicate the sex of an animal:—*Jack, Jenny, Tom, Billy, Nanny.*

3. Give the words correlative in Gender to *lad, bachelor, vixen, hero, niece, beau, sultana, wizard, nun, executor, marquis, traitor, ram, peacock, abbot.*

4. When we Personify the following objects, to which of them is the pronoun *She* applicable?—*Sun, Moon, Night, Liberty, Ocean, Fear, Wind, Mercy, The Thames, Mont Blanc.*

CHAPTER VII.

INFLEXION OF NOUNS.—II. NUMBER.

41. Number is an inflexion which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

When we speak of one thing, the form of the noun is Singular; when of more than one thing, the form of the noun is Plural.

42. **Formation of Plurals.**—The ways of forming Plurals in English Nouns are shown in the following classified scheme:—

Table of Plural Forms.

I. Add -s to the singular.

II. Add -es to the singular of—

- 1. Nouns ending in a sibilant, viz., *s, z, sh, x, ch*.
- 2. Some nouns ending in *f* sound; change *f* into *v*.
- 3. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant; change *y* into *i*.
- 4. Some nouns ending in *o*.

III. Old English forms:

- 1. Add -en; *ox-en*.
- 2. Add -er; *child-(e)r-en*.
- 3. Change the vowel; *men, geese*.

IV. Foreign forms:

- 1. Ancient; *seraphim, phenomena, appendices*.
- 2. Modern; *banditti, mesdames*.

43. Remarks on the Table of Plural Forms.

I. The ordinary mode of forming a plural in modern English is to add *-s* in writing: thus a new word like *telephone* or *telegram* takes *s*. If however a word is borrowed directly from a foreign language, it may retain the form of the plural which it had in that foreign language. Such a word is then said to be 'imperfectly naturalized'; it has not yet become an English subject.

Observe however that though we add *s* in writing, we often add *z* in pronunciation. Thus we write *slabs*, *podz*, *hogs*, but we pronounce these words *slabz*, *podz*, *hogz*.

II. This inflexion in *s* is a survival of the older form of the plural in *-es*.

1. The inflexion *es* as a separate syllable is necessarily retained to make the plurals of nouns ending in a sibilant sound. For if we add *s* to words with *s*, *z*, *sh*, *x*, or *ch*, for their last letter, such as *gas*, *topaz*, *bush*, *box*, *church*, the *s* thus added cannot be pronounced. The *ch* of which we speak here is the *ch* of *arch*, *beech*; the hard *ch* of *monarch* takes *s*.

2. As a general rule we may say that, if the noun is of English origin, and the *f* is preceded by *l*, or by a long vowel, *f* is changed into *v*, and *es* is added.

The following nouns illustrate the rule: *leaf*, *loaf*, *calf*, *wife*, *wolf*, *self*, for these words are of English origin and the vowel is long, or, if short, the *f* is preceded by *l*. On the other hand, the long vowel-sound *oo* in *roof*, *hoof*, is not followed by *-ves*: these words take *s*. *Reef*, *strife*, *lyfe*, are exceptions also: they add *s*, though they are of English origin and their vowels are long. *Chief* and *proof* take *s* conformably with the rule, as they are not of English origin, but come from the French. *Wharf*, *dwarf*, *scarf*, are found with plurals in both forms, *fs* and *ves*.

3. There is hardly anything in the nature of an exception to the rule respecting nouns ending in *y*. A word like *soliloquy*, which makes its plural in *ies*, looks as if it were an exception, but it really follows the rule, for the combination *qu* has the force of *kw*, which is a consonantal sound. The noun *fly*, however, when it means 'a carriage,' is written *flys*, and is thus distinguished from *flies*, 'insects.' Some words in *ey* are occasionally found with their plural in *ies*, e.g. *monies*, but it is better to spell them according to the rule.

4. The nouns in *o* which take *es* are usually of earlier introduction than those which take *s*. *Cargo*, *hero*, *potato*, *negro*, take *es*: *canto*, *solo*, *alto*, *piano*, *folio*, take *s*.

By observation and practice you will learn how to form the plurals of nouns in *f* and *o* correctly. Rules are of no great value for the purpose.

III. Old English forms, other than *es* and *s*, which survive in modern English are few.

1. *Oxen* is the only modern English word which presents us with the form *en* simply. *Chicken* is not a plural word, though it is used as such in country districts. *Kine* is a double plural: *cow* in Old English modified its vowel to form the plural and became *cy* (as *mouse* becomes *mice*), and the plural inflexion *en* was also added.

2. *Child-r-en* is a double plural, the *r* being one sign of the plural and the *en* another. No other word preserves for us the inflexion *er* with a plural force. *Brethren* is a double plural, *brother* having already modified its vowel to mark the plural, before *en* was added. But the *r* in *brethren*, unlike the *r* in *children*, belongs to the original word, and is not an inflexion.

3. There are only six nouns, in addition to the double forms mentioned above, which change their vowel to mark the plural: *man*, *foot*, *tooth*, *goose*, *mouse*, *louse*.

IV. Many of the nouns from dead languages can now be used with English plural forms: we can say *formulas*, *memorandums*, *funguses*, as well as *formulae*, *memoranda*, *fungi*. *Cherubim* and *seraphim* are Hebrew plurals, but in our ordinary speech we say *cherubs* and *seraphs*. The forms *cherubims*, *seraphims*, are double-plurals.

44. **Anomalies in the Number of Nouns.**—The following paragraphs contain illustrations of various kinds of anomaly in the number of nouns. *Anomaly* means 'unevenness,' or 'irregularity.'

(1) Nouns used in the Plural without change of form.

The following are examples: *deer*, *sheep*, *grouse*, the names of several sorts of *fish*,—*salmon*, *trout*, *cod*; also *yoke* ('five yoke of oxen'), *brace*, *hundredweight*.

(2) Nouns really Singular treated as Plural.

In *alms*, *eaves*, *riches*, the *s* is a part of the original word and not a plural inflexion. But it was mistaken for a sign of the plural, and these words are consequently treated as plurals. The French *richesse*, from which *riches* is derived, explains the presence of the *s*.

(3) Nouns Plural in form used as if Singular.

News always takes a singular verb and a singular demonstrative adjective: 'This news is not true,' not 'These news are not true.' *Small-pox* is a plural in disguise, for *pox* is really *pocks*: we have the singular in *chicken-pock*. Yet we never use a plural verb with *small-pox*.

Tidings, means, amends, pains, odds, wages, are treated sometimes as singular, sometimes as plural. *Mathematics*, *physics*, *statics*, and several similar words are plural forms taken from Greek adjectives. But, with the exception of the word *politics*, these nouns are now used as singular words.

(4) Nouns changing their meaning in the Plural.

Domino means 'a mask,' *dominoes* 'a game': *vapour* means 'steam,' *vapours* 'ill-humour': *compass* 'a mariner's compass,' *compasses* 'instruments for measuring': *vesper* 'evening,' *vespers* 'evening service': *good* means 'anything good,' *goods* means 'chattels.'

(5) Nouns having two forms of the Plural with different meanings.

Pennies means separate coins, *pence* is collective: 'Can you give me six pennies for this sixpence?' *Brother* has the collective plural *brethren*, meaning members of the same community. *Die*, 'a stamp,' makes a plural *dies*, 'stamps,' and a collective *dice*, 'cubes' used in gambling. *Cloth* makes *cloths*, signifying different kinds or different pieces of cloth, and also *clothes*, the collection of one's garments. *Fish* has for its plural *fishes*, but for its collective *fish*: 'He brought home a large basket of fish.' The word *pea* has lost the *s* in the singular by mistake: in the French *pois* it is still visible. But in its reduced form it has a plural *peas*, 'This pod contains six peas,' and a collective *pease*, as in 'pease-pudding.' *Index* and *genius* have different plural forms, neither of which is however collective. *Indexes* means 'tables of contents'; *geniuses*, 'persons of genius.' But *indices* means certain 'algebraical signs,' and *genii*, 'Eastern spirits.'

(6) Some nouns have no Plural.

This is because their meaning excludes the idea of plurality. We saw that abstract nouns, while they remain abstract, cannot be used in the plural. Many of these nouns do occur in the plural, but they have then ceased to be abstract and have become concrete general names. *Hope*, *hardship*, *joy*, *colour*, are abstract nouns which we use as concretes when we speak of *hopes*, *hardships*, *joys*, *colours*. On the other hand, *manhood*, *indolence*, *goodness*, *freedom*, are always abstract and singular.

Again, though the names of many substances or materials are used in the plural number, signifying different kinds or different portions of the material, there are some names of this description which custom forbids us to use in this way. *Granite*, *gold*, *potash*, *bread*, *flax*, are never plural. The names of some diseases also are always singular, e.g. *gout*, *consumption*, *rheumatism*.

(7) Some nouns have no Singular.

These nouns denote things composed of separate parts, and the complex character of the object makes the plural form appropriate. *E.g. scissors, tweezers, trousers, entrails.*

QUESTIONS.

1. Write in the Plural number the following nouns:—

(a) *ox, fox, tooth, hero, folio, cargo, fife, knife, scarf, proof, hoof, country, monkey, story, storey, beauty, wharf, chief, kiss, eye, colloquy, lily, flag-staff, canto, fly, summons, Miss Jones, Mr Smith:*

(b) *axis, formula, appendix, bandit, beau, cherub, radius, genus, tableau vivant, crocus, animalculum, portmanteau, medium, plateau, madam:*

(c) *aide-de-camp, Lord Mayor, Knight Templar, maid-of-honour, major-general, Frenchman, Norman, talisman, cast-away, lady-help, heir apparent, man-of-war, man-servant, brother-in-law.*

2. Put in the Singular number *tumuli, series, effluvia, automata, vertices, phenomena, errata, seraphim, bases, criteria.*

3. Make sentences in which the following nouns are used with different meanings in the Singular and the Plural:—*people, wood, manner, force, spectacle, good, iron, water, compass.*

4. Mention some nouns ending in *f* which do not form their Plurals in *-ves*.

5. In which of the following sentences would you alter the number of the verb to the Plural?—‘The wages of sin *is* death.’—‘Small-pox *has* disappeared, and pains *is* being taken to stamp out measles, which *continues* to spread, as the means of checking its progress *was* employed too late.’—‘No tidings of his arrival *has* reached us.’—‘The eaves *projects* over the road.’—‘The gallows still *stands* on the heath, where the barracks *is* being built.’—‘What *is* the odds?’—‘Mathematics *affords* good mental exercise.’

CHAPTER VIII.

INFLEXION OF NOUNS.—III. CASE.

45. Things are related in various ways to other things and to their actions.—Compare the following sentences:—

‘The town admitted the enemy.’

‘The enemy captured the town.’

Each sentence makes mention of the same two things, a town and an enemy. But although the two things are the same, the relation in which they are described as standing to each other is different. According to the first sentence, the town did something to the enemy. According to the second sentence, the enemy did something to the town.

The two things, town and enemy, might be related to each other in many other ways. The enemy might retire from the town,—or return to the town,—or march through the town,—or remain in the town,—or dig a passage under the town,—or gallop up and down the town.

46. How these relations are expressed in language.—When we record in language these different performances of the enemy, we use nouns to name the things, and verbs to state what was done. And we may say that, just as the things, enemy and town, occupied various relations to each other and to the acts of marching, or digging, or galloping, so, in our sentences, the nouns *enemy* and *town* are related in various ways to each other and to the verbs by means of which the acts are asserted.

Let us notice how these different relations are expressed. In our first two examples, the relations in which town and enemy stood to each other were determined by the **position** of the words in the sentence. When the town did something to the enemy, we put the word *town* before the verb, and the word *enemy* after the verb, and said, 'The town admitted the enemy.' When the enemy did something to the town, we reversed the places of the nouns and said, 'The enemy captured the town.'

Now look at the remaining sentences, and you will see that the different relations are indicated by **prepositions**. Every change of the preposition marks a change in the relation of the town to the enemy.

47. Relations expressed by Case-endings.—

Suppose however that our word *town* (and other nouns too) had a large supply of inflexions, by which all these relations could be expressed. Suppose, for example, that when something was done to the town, we said *town-um* instead of *town*. The consequence would be this:—we should no longer be obliged to put *town* after the verb, as we are obliged to put it now, when we say, 'The enemy captured the town.' We could vary the order and say, 'Town-um the enemy captured,' or 'The enemy town-um captured,' and people would understand our meaning, because they would know that the noun ending in *-um* stood for the thing to which the action was done.

Suppose further that inflexions were employed also to mark those other relations, which we expressed by means of prepositions,—so that, for instance, *town-o* signified 'from the town,' and *town-i* signified 'in the town,'—we should then be showing these relations of our nouns by Case-endings, instead of showing them, as we do now, by the use of prepositions. To say *town-um*, *town-i*, and *town-o*, in English, is to talk gibberish, but *Corinth-um*, *Corinth-i*, and *Corinth-o*, were not gibberish in Latin. A Roman said *Corinth-um* when he meant 'to Corinth'; *Corinth-i*, when he meant

'at Corinth'; and *Corinth-o*, when he meant 'from Corinth.' Latin was well off for case-endings; but even in Latin it was often necessary to use prepositions, because the relations, in which things stand to other things, are far more numerous than the case-endings of that language could express. A Roman had to fall back on prepositions, when he wanted to say 'through Corinth,' 'round Corinth,' 'under Corinth,' 'up and down Corinth.'

Now English has a very poor supply of Case-endings, and consequently,—

(1) The position of nouns in English sentences admits of very little variety.

(2) Prepositions are used instead of Cases.

We may define Case as follows :—

Case is the form of a noun, or pronoun, which shows its relation to other words in the sentence.

The sum-total of the inflexions marking number and case of a noun or pronoun is called its Declension.

48. Cases in English.—How many cases have we in English nouns and pronouns? In answer to this question, let us write out the declension of *town* and of *he*.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	town	towns	he	they
<i>Poss.</i>	town's	towns'	his	their
<i>Obj.</i>	town	towns	him	them

It is clear that the pronoun *he* is better off than the noun in its supply of case-inflexions. *He*, *his*, *him*, are three genuine cases. But it is otherwise with the noun. *Town*, nominative, is indistinguishable in form from *town*, objective. The form of the word *town* does not show its relation to the rest of the sentence: the **position** of the word, or its **context**, shows its relation. The distinction between subject and object is one of such importance, however, that we are obliged to recognise it by speaking of a Nominative and an Objective case in nouns as well as in pronouns. If *him* is correctly described as a pronoun in

the objective case, when we say, 'Brutus killed him,' it would be inconvenient if we refused to call *Caesar* a noun in the objective case, when we say, 'Brutus killed Caesar,' for *him* and *Caesar* stand in precisely the same relation to the verb by which the act of killing is asserted.

But combinations of a noun and a preposition are not to be called Cases. If *of a town*, *to a town*, *from a town*, were cases, we should have as many cases as there are prepositions.

49. Functions of the Cases.

(1) The **Nominative** case is the form of a noun when it stands as **subject** of a verb.

'*The town* admitted the enemy,' '*The town* was taken.' In each of these sentences the subject is *town*, though in the first sentence *town* represents the doer of the action, while in the second it stands for the thing to which the action is done.

When the noun represents a thing spoken *to*, we may call its case the **Vocative**, or the **Nominative of Address**. '*Waiter!*' '*Come here, John!*' '*O death! O grave!*' are examples.

(2) The **Objective** case is the form of a noun when it stands as **object** of a verb, or **follows a preposition**. '*The enemy took the town,*' '*The enemy are in the town.*' *Town* is said to be in the objective case, in the former sentence because it represents the object which the enemy *took*, in the latter because it comes after the preposition *in*.

Some verbs take two objects: '*Give me the book,*' '*He told us a story,*' '*She taught him music,*' '*Get them a cab.*' In these sentences, *me*=*to me*, *us*=*to us*, *him*=*to him*, *them*=*for them*. These words *me*, *us*, *him*, *them*, are called **Indirect Objects**; *book*, *story*, *music*, *cab*, are called **Direct Objects**.

(3) The **Possessive** case is the form of a noun when it stands for a thing **to which something else belongs** or **with which it is connected**.

The king's crown, *the king's execution*. The noun *king* assumes the form *king's* because it stands for a thing (e.g. Charles I. or Louis XVI.) to which a crown belongs, or with which an execution is connected.

This relation may be expressed by the inflexion *'s* or by the preposition *of*. We may say *the king's crown*, *the king's execution*, or *the crown of the king*, *the execution of the king*. The form *king's* is a possessive case: the expression *of the king* is no case at all, any more than *to*, *from*, *by*, *with*, *in*, *round the king* are cases.

The **apostrophe** before the *s* is no part of the inflexion or case: it is

merely a device of spelling to show that a letter, *e*, has been thrown out, or turned away. (*Apostrophe* means 'a turning away.')

50. Formation of the Possessive case.—To form the possessive case singular, add 's.

To form the possessive case plural, add 's, if the plural does not already end in *s*: if it already ends in *s*, add the apostrophe only.

So, sing. *town*, *town's*; plur. *towns*, *towns'*. Thus, in sound *town's*, *towns*, *towns'* are indistinguishable. But if we add the 's to a singular noun which in the singular ends in an *s* sound, or sibilant, we pronounce the 's as a separate syllable: thus *actress's* is pronounced just like *actresses* or *actresses'*.

The possessive singular of a noun ending in a sibilant is frequently formed by adding the apostrophe without the -s, in order to avoid the recurrence of the *s* sound: but no hard and fast rule can be laid down. We say 'Jesus' brothers,' 'Sophocles' tragedies,' 'for goodness' sake,' 'for conscience' sake.' But we more commonly sound the *s* and write 'St James's Square,' 'Mr Jones's,' 'St Thomas's Hospital.'

It is quite a mistake to suppose that the 's of the possessive is a corruption of *his*, so that *John's book* has grown out of *John his book*. In Old English there is no trace of such a use of *his*. Besides, if this theory were accepted, how could we explain the origin of the *s* in *his*? Where did we get the first *his* from?

51. Examples of the Declension of Nouns.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom. Obj.</i>	ox	oxen	mouse	mice
<i>Possess.</i>	ox's	oxen's	mouse's	mice's
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>		
<i>Nom. Obj.</i>	conscience	consciences		
<i>Possess.</i>	conscience's,	consciences'		
	or conscience'			
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>		
<i>Nom. Obj.</i>	son-in-law	sons-in-law		
<i>Possess.</i>	son-in-law's	sons-in-law's		
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	
<i>Nom. Obj.</i>	James	Henry VIII.	The last of the barons	
<i>Possess.</i>	James',	Henry VIII.'s	The last of the barons'	
	or James's			

52. Restricted Use of the Inflected Possessive.—A few trials will show that although the preposition *of* can always be employed, there are narrow limits to the use of the inflected form of the possessive in 's. We can say either 'the boy's cap,' or 'the cap of the boy,' 'the horse's

bridle,' or 'the bridle of the horse,' 'nature's forces,' or 'the forces of nature.' But we cannot say, 'the ink's colour,' 'grammar's laws,' 'the house's roof,' 'the station's platform.'

We may say that the inflected form in 's is generally reserved for the **names of living things** and of **personified objects**, though our usage does not entirely conform to this principle: we use the form in 's in such phrases as 'a year's absence,' 'a month's delay,' though there is no personification to justify these idioms.

53. How to tell the cases.—To find the—

(1) **Nominative**, put *who?* or *what?* before the verb. 'The enemy took the town.' 'Who took the town?' 'The enemy.' 'The town was taken by the enemy.' 'What was taken?' 'The town.'

(2) **Objective** :—

(a) **Direct Object**, put *whom?* or *what?* before the verb and its subject. 'The enemy took the town.' 'What did the enemy take?' 'The town.'

(b) **Indirect Object**, put *to* or *for whom* or *what?* 'Give me the book.' 'What do you give?' 'The book : ' this is the Direct Object. 'To whom do you give it?' 'To me.' 'Me' is the Indirect Object.

(3) **Possessive**, look for the sign of inflexion 's.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are the Case and Number of each of the following words? *son's, fathers', men's, him, mice, mouse's, mice's.*

2. Write down the Possessive case, singular and plural, where admissible, of *man, sheep, people, tree, Moses, gladness, cow, dwarf, die, Lord Chancellor, Secretary of the Home Department.*

3. Write the Possessive case in the plural of the feminine form corresponding to *hero, lad, songster, fox, testator, man-servant, prince, father-in-law, he-ass.*

4. Which of the following nouns can be used in sentences with the Possessive in -s, as well as with its substitute *of*?—*house, tree, oxygen, mantel-piece, year, June, servant, science, scarlatina, brandy.*

5. Name the case of each noun in the following sentences :—'Cain killed Abel.'—'Abel was killed by Cain.'—'Tom, the piper's son, stole a pig.'—'Tom the piper's son stole a pig.'—'John! call me a friend.'—'John! call me a hansom.'—'His neighbours called him The People's Friend.'

CHAPTER IX.

ADJECTIVES.

54. An Adjective is a word which is used with a noun to limit its application.

The name *sheep* is applicable to all sheep. If we join the Adjective *black* to the noun *sheep*, the name *black sheep* is applicable only to those sheep which possess the quality of blackness. The application of the name *sheep* has been **limited** to a smaller number of things. In like manner, if we say *some sheep*, *twenty sheep*, or *these sheep*, *those sheep*, we narrow, or restrict, or limit, in every instance the application of the noun.

Adjectives and verbs resemble each other in this respect, that they express attributes or qualities of things, but there is a difference in their way of doing it. When we say 'the black sheep' we assume, or imply, or take for granted the connexion of the attribute blackness with the thing a sheep. When we say, 'The sheep is black,' we explicitly state this connexion. The word *black* in the former case is said to be used *attributively*, in the latter case *predicatively*, since it forms, together with the verb *is*, the predicate of the sentence.

Some adjectives can be used only predicatively. We can say, 'The man is afraid,' or 'awake,' but not 'the afraid man,' or 'the awake man.'

55. Classification of Adjectives.—Adjectives may be arranged in the following groups, or classes, according to the kind of limitation which they effect :—

I. Adjectives of QUALITY : *thick, wise, sad, tall, magnificent, modern, holy, native, senior.*

2. Adjectives of QUANTITY:

(i) Definite; the Cardinal Numerals, *one, two, fifty, no, none, both.*

(ii) Indefinite; *many, any, some, all, few, half, several, most.*

3. DEMONSTRATIVE Adjectives:

(i) *A* and *the*, commonly called Articles.

(ii) Pronominal Adjectives of various kinds: *this, what, any, his.* These will be dealt with in Chapter x.

(iii) The Ordinal Numerals, *first, twentieth.*

Qualitative Adjectives answer the question, '*What sort?*'

Quantitative Definite Adjectives answer the question, '*How many?*'

Quantitative Indefinite Adjectives answer the question, '*How many?*' or '*How much?*'

Demonstrative Adjectives answer the question, '*Which?*'

56. The so-called Articles.—The words *the* and *an* or *a* are Demonstrative Adjectives. In parsing, we may describe *the* as a Demonstrative Adjective commonly called the Definite Article, and *an* or *a* as a Demonstrative Adjective commonly called the Indefinite Article.

1. What are the chief uses of *the*?

(a) to point out a thing: 'Give me *the* book,—*the* red one.'

(b) to specify objects which are well known to us: '*the* river.'

(c) to indicate things of which only a single specimen exists: '*the* Alps,' '*the* Thames.'

(d) to signify a class, with nouns in the singular number or with adjectives: '*the* horse,' '*the* ant'; '*the* rich,' '*the* wise.'

(e) in colloquial language with emphasis on the word *the*, to mark a superlative: 'Here comes *the* cricketer,' meaning 'the best cricketer.'

(f) as an adverb with comparatives: '*the* more *the* better.' This signifies '*by that* much the more *by so* much the better.'

2. What are the chief uses of *an* or *a*?

- (a) to signify *one*: 'three men in *a* boat,' 'two of *a* trade.'
 (b) to signify *any one*: 'If *a* body meet *a* body.'
 (c) to signify *a certain one*: '*A* man told me there was *a* fire.'

3. When is *an* used instead of *a*?

Before words beginning with a vowel, or a silent *h*, as in *heir*, *honest*. But words beginning with a *y*, or with a *u* which has the sound of *y* before it, take *a*: thus we say '*an* utter failure,' but '*a* useful machine.'

57. Comparison of Adjectives.—The only inflexion of Adjectives, which survives in modern English, is that of Comparison.

What do we mean by the Comparison of Adjectives?

If we say, 'The sheep is black,' we assert that the sheep has a quality called 'blackness.' Now blackness is a quality which varies in its amount: there are different shades of blackness. One sheep may be blacker than another. And there are many qualities, such as height, weight, speed, cleverness, which vary far more than blackness. To indicate these variations we modify our adjectives; and this modification is called Comparison.

Thus, when I say, 'John is tall, Charles is taller, but Henry is the tallest of the three,' I assert that the quality of tallness is present in John; present to a greater extent in Charles; and present to a still greater extent in Henry. The adjectives *tall*, *taller*, and *tallest*, are said to be respectively in the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative Degree.

58. Comparison not applicable to all Adjectives.—If an adjective denotes a quality which cannot vary in amount, that adjective will not admit of Degrees of Comparison.

Refer to the examples, given in § 55, of adjectives belonging to different classes. You will understand from their meaning that none of the Demonstrative Adjectives and none of the Definite Adjectives of Quantity can be compared, while of the Indefinite Adjectives of

Quantity only a few admit of Comparison. Thus, we can compare *many, much, little, few*, but not *any, all, some, half, several*.

Adjectives of Quality remain, and to some even of these comparison is inapplicable, on account of their meaning. For—

(i) The adjective in the positive degree may already express the presence of the quality in the greatest conceivable extent: thus, *extreme, universal, full, empty, top, infinite, perfect*, if used literally, cannot be compared. When we say, 'This glass is *emptier* than that,' 'Yours is a more *perfect* specimen,' we are evidently employing the words *empty* and *perfect* in an inexact sense.

(ii) The adjective may denote the presence of a quality which does not vary in its amount: *e.g. wooden, circular, monthly, English*.

59. Formation of Comparatives and Superlatives.—There are **two** ways of forming the Degrees of Comparison:—

1. Add to the Positive *-er* to form the Comparative and *-est* to form the Superlative, in the case of all words of one syllable and some words of two syllables, especially those in *-er, -le, -y*, as *clever, able, merry*.

2. Use the adverbs *more, most*, before the Positive.

Notice the following changes of spelling when the inflexions marking comparison are added:

(i) If the Positive ends in *-e*, cut off the *-e*: *e.g. grav-er, larg-er*.

(ii) If in *y*, change the *y* to *i*, if a consonant precedes, as *drier, merrier*, but retain the *y*, if a vowel precedes, as *gayer, greyer*. (This is similar to the rule determining the spelling of plurals of nouns in *-y*.) Note that the adjective *shy* keeps the *y*.

(iii) Monosyllabic words ending in a consonant preceded by a short vowel double the consonant to show that the vowel is short: *hotter, thinner, redder*.

60. Irregular Comparison.—The following Comparisons are irregular, that is to say, they do not conform to the general rules stated above¹. In many instances defi-

¹ For remarks on these forms, see *The Elements of English Grammar* (Pitt Press Series), pp. 111—12.

ciencies have been supplied by borrowing words from other adjectives : defect is one kind of irregularity.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much, many	more	most
Nigh	nigher	nighest, next
Near	nearer	nearest
Fore	former	foremost, first
Far	farther	farthest
[Forth]	further	furthest
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost
[In]	inner	inmost, innermost
[Out]	outer, utter	utmost, uttermost
[Up]	upper	upmost, uppermost
<i>Rathe</i>	[rather]	

The positive forms in brackets are adverbs : corresponding adjectives exist only in the comparative and superlative.

QUESTIONS.

1. Limit the application of the following nouns by prefixing (1) Qualitative, (2) Quantitative, (3) Demonstrative Adjectives :—*books, meat, cows, river, ideas.*

2. Refer to its class each Adjective in the following sentences :—
 ‘That idle boy learns nothing useful.’—‘Most men have some favourite amusement.’—‘Few poor people live in aristocratic neighbourhoods.’—
 ‘No face is exactly the same on both sides.’—‘Two removals are as bad as a fire.’—‘All the perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand.’

3. Write three sentences containing an Adjective used as a Noun, and three containing a Noun used as an Adjective.

[For the latter part of the Question, such nouns as *gold, iron, cotton, church, railway*, will serve. Think of others.]

What does *dead* mean, when we speak of ‘a dead level,’ ‘a dead heat,’ ‘a dead shot’?

4. In consequence of the omission of the nouns which they limit, the following Adjectives are treated as nouns and used in the plural number. Name the missing nouns :—*contemporaries, greens, incapables, italics, extremes, brilliants, worthies, empties, capitals.*

5. Form Adjectives from the following nouns:—*sleep, brass, truth, east, shade, love, vice, price, fool, trouble, rag, fire, disaster, courage, heart.*

Attach each Adjective to a suitable noun.

6. Would you put *a* or *an* before each of the following words?—*ewe, heir, house, union, honour, humble, historian, urn, hearse, use.*

7. Make sentences in which the following Adjectives are used predicatively:—*blue, clean, ill, glad, splendid, alone, loud, alike, infirm, sorry.*

Which of these Adjectives can be used attributively also?

[Some of the above Adjectives cannot be used attributively at all. Others can be so used only in particular phrases; *e.g.* 'an ill wind,' 'glad tidings.']

8. Substitute Abstract Nouns equivalent to the following expressions:—'the sublime and beautiful,' 'the true,' 'the absurd.'

What is the meaning of *the brave* and *the fair* in Dryden's line,—
'None but the brave deserve the fair'?

9. Which of the following Adjectives, if rightly employed, do not admit of Comparison?—*general, annual, long, square, golden, Asiatic, void, everlasting, extravagant, indispensable.*

10. Write sentences into which you introduce—

(a) the Comparative of *happy, idle, clever, saucy, big, gay, dry, ridiculous*:

(b) the Superlative of *free, usual, shy, red, beautiful, much, unfortunate, few.*

11. Make sentences which illustrate the difference in our use of *nearest* and *next, latest* and *last, oldest* and *eldest, less* and *fewer, few* and *a few.*

12. Mention some Comparatives which cannot be followed by *than.*

[The following are examples:—*junior, exterior, major, inner, latter.* Think of a few more.]

13. Milton speaks of 'the rathe primrose.' What does *rathe* mean? Show that a similar meaning is present in the comparative Adverb *rather.*

[*Rathe* means 'early.' What word do we often use instead of *rather* in such an expression as 'I would rather not go'?

CHAPTER X.

PRONOUNS.

61. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

This definition calls attention to a useful service, which most Pronouns perform, in saving the repetition of the Noun. But there is an important difference between Nouns and Pronouns. A Noun has a uniform meaning of its own: it always indicates an object of the same kind. If I say, 'The horse ran away,' you know the particular class of objects to which the thing that ran away belonged. But the meaning of a Pronoun varies with every change in its application. If I say, 'It ran away,' *it* may signify a horse, or a dog, or a locomotive, or any other object to which I am making reference. When a master and a pupil are talking together, the master calls himself *I* and the pupil *you*, while the pupil calls the master *you* and himself *I*. According to circumstances, anything can be *it*, *this*, *that*, but the words *master*, *pupil*, *horse*, are invariable in meaning, and can be applied only to things belonging to particular groups.

62. Different kinds of Pronouns.

(1) Some Pronouns are used exclusively as substitutes for nouns.

(2) Others are used both as substitutes for nouns and as adjectives limiting nouns.

(3) A few so-called Pronouns are now used only as adjectives, but they are usually dealt with under the head of pronouns, because they are connected with pronouns in their origin.

Thus, (1) *he* and *who* are used only as nouns. We cannot say 'he man,' or 'who boy.'

But (2) *that* and *what* are used both as nouns and as adjectives. We can say, 'Give me *that*,' or 'Give me *that book*'; '*What* did you do?' or '*What business* did you do?'

Lastly (3) *my* and *your* are used only as adjectives. We can say, '*My book* is lost,' but not '*My* is lost'; 'Lend me *your book*,' not 'Lend me *your*.'

Applying these distinctions in our classification of Pronouns, we arrange these words in the following groups:—

TABLE OF PRONOUNS.

<i>Used only as Nouns.</i>		<i>Used as Adjectives also.</i>
I. PERSONAL—I, we: thou, you, ye		
II. DEMONSTRATIVE—he, she, it, they		this, these; that, those
III. REFLEXIVE—myself, yourself, himself		
IV. RELATIVE—that, who		what, which
V. INTERROGATIVE—who		what, which
VI. INDEFINITE — anybody, anything, aught, naught, somebody, something, nobody, nothing		one, any, certain, other, some
VII. DISTRIBUTIVE — everybody, everything		each, every, either, neither

Used now only as Adjectives.

VIII. POSSESSIVE—my, our; thy, your; her, its, their.

The Possessives *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, are used when no noun follows them, and in this respect they resemble nouns, but their force is purely adjectival. The same remarks apply to *mine* and *thine* in modern diction. *His* admits of use either with or without a noun following.

63. I. Personal Pronouns.—The Pronouns of the First, Second, and Third Persons are declined thus:—

	Pronoun of 1st Person		Pronoun of 2nd Person		Pronoun of 3rd Person			
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.		Plur.	
					M.	F.	N.	
Nom.	I	we	thou	ye, you	he	she	it	they
Obj.	me	us	thee	ye, you	him	her	it	them
Poss.	[my our		thy	your	his	her	its	their
	mine ours		thine	yours		hers		theirs]

Remarks.—(1) The Pronoun of the Third Person belongs properly to the Demonstratives.

Its is a modern word. It appears once in the Authorized Version of the Bible (*Levit.* xxv. 5) as it is now printed, but not in the original edition of 1611. *His* was formerly the genitive case of both *he* and *it*: 'If the salt have lost *his* savour.'

(2) The forms of these Pronouns in the Possessive case are used no longer as Personal Pronouns, but only as Possessive Adjectives. 'Envy of *them*' is not now expressed by saying '*their* envy,' nor 'fear of *me*' by saying '*my* fear.' But in 1 Pet. iii. 14, 'Be not afraid of *their* terror' means 'Be not afraid of the terror of *them*,' and in Ps. v. 7, 'In *thy* fear will I worship' means 'In the fear of *Thee* will I worship.' This is the reason why we have enclosed these forms in brackets: they belong to the Personal Pronouns by origin, but have become purely adjectival in force.

(3) *Thou* is used only in addressing God and in the language of poetry. But half a century ago the Quakers employed *thou* and *thee* in ordinary speech. The plural *you* is now used exclusively, whether we are addressing several individuals or only one.

(4) The dative *me* survives in *methinks*, *meseems*, 'woe is *me*,' and as the indirect object, e.g. 'Do *me* a service'; here *me* is equivalent to 'for me' or 'to me.'

64. II. Demonstrative Pronouns.—*This* and *that* are used both as nouns and as adjectives.

This and *that* are employed to denote the latter and the former,—*this* the one nearer to us, *that* the one farther away. Both *these* and *those* are really forms of the plural of *this*; but *these* alone is now used as the plural of *this*, while *those* is used as the plural of *that*.

65. III. Reflexive Pronouns.—*Myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*, *oneself*, are Reflexive Pronouns. They are also used without any reflexive force, for the purpose of marking emphasis.

(1) 'Take care of yourself,' 'They killed themselves.' In such sentences we have the *reflexive* use of these pronouns: the action performed by the doer passes back to him, so both the subject and the object of the sentence stand for the same person.

(2) 'Take care yourself,' 'They themselves killed it.' In such sentences we have the *emphatic* use of these pronouns: there is nothing *reflexive* in their meaning here.

66. IV. Relative Pronouns.—The Relative Pronouns are *that*, *who*, *what*, *which*, and rarely *as*. Their characteristic feature is this: **they have the force of conjunctions**. If, therefore, we called them Conjunctive Pronouns, this term would be more appropriate than the name Relative. Thus, the sentence ‘I met the policeman *who* said there was a disturbance’ contains two sentences rolled into one: ‘The policeman said there was a disturbance. I met him.’ ‘This is the book *that* you lent me’ may be resolved into ‘You lent me a book. This is it.’

The noun or pronoun to which the Relative refers is called the **antecedent**, *i.e.* that which goes before.

The relative is often omitted when, if expressed, it would be in the objective case. Thus, ‘the man I met,’ is an elliptical form of expression for ‘the man *whom* I met’; ‘the book you lent me’ is elliptical for ‘the book *which* you lent me.’

When *what* is used as a relative, the antecedent is always omitted: ‘I understand *what* you mean.’ It is contrary to modern idiom to insert *that* in such a sentence before *what*.

From *who*, *what*, *which*, we have formed compound relatives *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whatsoever*. *Whosoever* is declined as follows:—

Nom. *whosoever*, Obj. *whomsoever*, Possess. *whosoever*.

67. Pronouns both Relative and Interrogative.

—The words *who*, *what*, *which*, are used both as Relatives and as Interrogatives.

Who is used only as a noun: we cannot say *who man*. It has three cases, *who*, *whom*, *whose*, in singular and plural.

What is the neuter of *who* and can be used both as noun and adjective. *What* is used as an Interrogative in ‘*What* did he say?’ Here it has the force of a noun. ‘*What* remark did he make?’ Here it is adjectival. It is used as a Relative in ‘I don’t know *what* he said.’ Here it has the force of a noun. ‘I don’t know *what* remark he made.’ Here it is adjectival.

Which can be used as noun or adjective, both as Interrogative and as Relative. ‘*Which* will you have?’ ‘*Which* book will you have?’ ‘I know *which* I will have,’ ‘I know *which* book I will have.’

Which as a Relative pronoun is no longer used of persons, though it was so used formerly: *e.g.* ‘Our Father, *which* art in heaven.’

68. Different Uses of 'That.'—The word *that* is sometimes a Demonstrative Pronoun (or Demonstrative Adjective, if it limits the meaning of a noun); sometimes a Relative Pronoun; and sometimes not a Pronoun at all, but a Conjunction. You may be puzzled, at first, to determine, in some particular instance, to which of these classes the word belongs. Decide the point by applying the following tests. If you can substitute *this* for *that*, the word is a Demonstrative. If you can substitute *which* (or *who* or *whom*), the word is a Relative. If you cannot substitute either *this* or *which*, *who*, or *whom*, the word must be a Conjunction.

Try these experiments upon the following sentences:—

- (1) Lend me *that* book.
- (2) *That* is my book.
- (3) The book *that* you lent me is lost.
- (4) You said *that* I had lost your book.

In (1) *that* is a Demonstrative Adjective, limiting *book*: in (2) *that* is a Demonstrative Pronoun: in both of these sentences *this* might take the place of *that* without producing any serious alteration in the sense.

In (3) *that* is a Relative Pronoun: its equivalent would be *which*.

In (4) *that* is a Conjunction: neither *this* nor *which* would make sense.

Notice that in (2) *which* would make sense, but the sense would be entirely different. Here *which* would be an Interrogative Pronoun, and the sentence would contain a question, instead of expressing a statement. Now you know that the word *that*, whatever else it may be, is never an Interrogative Pronoun.

69. Different Uses of the Relatives.—Note carefully the following points in which our use of *that* differs from our use of *who* or *which* as a Relative Pronoun.

(1) *That* is used of persons and things, whilst *who* is used of persons only and *which* of things.

(2) *That* cannot follow a preposition: if *that* is used as the relative, the preposition is tacked on at the end of the sentence. Thus, 'The man *in whom* I trusted' becomes 'The man *that* I trusted *in*'; 'The house *of which* you told me' becomes 'The house *that* you told me *of*'; 'The means *by which* he did it' becomes 'The means *that* he did it *by*.'

(3) *That* has a **restrictive** force which renders it unsuitable sometimes as the substitute for *who* or *which*. I can say, 'My sister *that* is abroad is ill,' because I may have several sisters, and the clause introduced by *that* limits the application of the noun to one of the number. But I cannot say, 'My mother *that* is abroad is ill,' because the restrictive *that* would suggest that I have more mothers than one, which is absurd. I must say, 'My mother *who* is abroad,' which signifies, 'My mother, and she is abroad,' the word *who* having a **coordinating** force in uniting two coordinate statements, 'My mother is ill,' 'My mother is abroad.'

70. VI. Indefinite Pronouns.—The following are the principal Indefinite Pronouns:—*one, any, aught, other, some* and its compounds, *somebody, something*.

71. VII. Distributive Pronouns.—*Each, every, either*, are used to indicate things taken separately: hence they are called Distributive Pronouns.

Each may be used both as noun and as adjective, 'Give one to *each*,' 'Give one to *each boy*.'

Every is used only when we are speaking of more than two objects. We should not say, 'Give one to *every boy*,' unless there were at least three. In modern English, *every* is always followed by a noun: thus, we do not say, 'Give one to *every*.'

Either means 'one of two.' Thus, 'Here are two books: choose *either*.' The negative of *either* is *neither*.

Each, every, either, and *neither*, are followed by a verb in the singular.

Each other and *one another* express reciprocity. If *A* hits *B*, and *B* hits *A*, we say that they hit *each other*. If the parties concerned are more than two in number, we say that they hit *one another*.

72. VIII. Possessives.—The words *my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their*, and the forms *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, are possessive cases of the Pronouns of the First, Second, and Third Persons. They are therefore Pronouns by origin, but they have now become Adjectives in use.

In modern speech we employ the Possessives belonging to the two groups with this difference. We use *my, thy, her, its, our, your, their*, if a noun immediately follows. We use *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours*,

theirs, if the noun, which they limit, does not follow them. *His* is used in both ways.

Thus we say, 'Give me *my* book and take *yours*,' not 'Give me *mine* book and take *your*.' But we say, 'This is *his* book' and 'This book is *his*.'

QUESTIONS.

1. Rewrite the following sentence without using any of the Pronouns:—'The master lent the boy one of his books and told him that he was to return it to him when his sister had read it.'

2. Classify the Pronouns in the sentence,—'Who is the author of that book which you and I were reading this morning?'

3. Make a sentence containing a Personal Pronoun in the Objective case and a Relative Pronoun in the Possessive case.

4. Construct three sentences containing respectively *who*, *whom*, and *that*, used as Relative Pronouns.

5. Write sentences in which *himself*, *yourselves*, occur, (1) with a reflexive force, (2) with an emphatic force.

'And I myself sometimes despise myself.' Distinguish the uses of *myself* in this line.

6. Refer the word *that* to its proper class each time it occurs in the following sentences:—'You gave me *that* stamp.'—'*That* is the stamp *that* you gave me.'—'Give me *that*.'—'You promised *that* you would give me *that* stamp.'—'You declared *that that that that* man said was untrue.'

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7. Are any corrections needed in the following expressions?—'That's *him*.'—'This is the man as robbed me.'—'Avoid such games which require much time.'—'I saw your father that is at Brighton.'—'Trees are planted on either side of the road.'—'Give the book to who-soever you please.'—'The one true lover which you ever had.'—'The winds who take the ruffian billows by the top.'—'Either of the first six boys is likely to get the prize.'

8. Name the class to which each of the italicised Pronouns belongs in the following sentences:—'*Whatsoever* things are of good report, think of *these* things.'—'*We* speak *that* we do know.'—'*Who* digs a pit for *others*, falls into *it* *himself*.'—'*Their* sound went *into* all the earth.'—'It is we *that* are blind, not Fortune.'—'Let *him* *that* earns eat.'—'*What* is *this* life of *ours*?—'*What* is known to three is known to *everybody*.'—'*One* ploughs, *another* sows; *who* will reap, no one knows.'—'*They* laugh *that* win.'—'*Whosoever* will be great among *you*, let *him* be your servant.'—'Owe no man *anything*, but to love *one* *another*.'—'Let *each* esteem *other* better than *themselves*.'—'*Who* values *that* anger *which* is consumed only in empty menaces?'

CHAPTER XI.

VERBS.

73. A Verb is a word with which we can make an assertion.

We make assertions about things. The word which stands for the thing about which we make the assertion is called the Subject of the verb, or the Subject of the sentence. As the names of things are nouns, the subject must be a noun or its equivalent, such as a pronoun, a verb in the infinitive mood, or a noun-clause. Thus we may say,—

Error (<i>Noun</i>)	} is human.
It (<i>Pronoun</i>)	
To err (<i>Infinitive</i>)	
That one should err (<i>Noun-clause</i>)	

When we make an assertion about a thing, we are said in grammatical language to *predicate* something about the thing. As no assertion can be made without the use of a verb, the verb is called the Predicate of the subject, or of the sentence in which it occurs.

What is asserted is either **action** or **state**. *Action* is asserted when we say, 'The prisoner stole the watch,' 'The watch was stolen by the prisoner,' 'The prisoner ran away.' *State* is asserted when we say, 'The prisoner was glad,' 'The prisoner continued unrepentant,' 'The prisoner slept soundly.'

74. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—Some verbs denote actions which are directed towards, or pass over to, certain objects. Other verbs denote actions which are confined to the agents performing them. When I say, 'The boy kicked the dog and then ran away,' I assert that the boy performed two actions; but the two actions differed in this respect. The action of kicking produced an effect on an object outside the boy: it passed beyond the boy to the dog. But the action of running away terminated with the boy: there was no object by which an action of this sort could be received.

The distinction between Transitive and Intransitive Verbs is one of great importance. We may define these verbs as follows:—

A **Transitive Verb** is one which indicates an action directed towards some object.

An **Intransitive Verb** is one which indicates (1) an action not directed towards some object, or (2) a state.

The word **Object** has unfortunately to serve for two purposes. Sometimes it stands for the *thing* affected by an action, and sometimes for the *word* which represents this thing. Bear in mind therefore that,—

The **Object** of a verb is the **word** which stands for the **thing** which is the **object** of the action denoted by the verb.

It would be a concise description of a **Transitive Verb** to say that it is a **Verb** that can take an **Object**.

75. Cognate Objectives.—Do not suppose however that a verb is necessarily Transitive because you find a noun following it. Intransitive verbs are sometimes accompanied by a noun of kindred meaning. If I say, 'He walked a mile,' 'He ran a race,' I do not mean that the action of walking passed over to the mile, or the action of running to the race. 'A mile' and 'a race' describe the degree, or the manner, in which the actions were performed. They resemble adverbs in their force; and are used just as we should use adverbs, if we said, 'He walked *far*,' 'He ran *fast*.' The nouns thus used with Intransitive Verbs are called **Cognate Objectives**, or **Adverbial Objectives**. 'To dream a

dream,' 'to sleep the sleep (of death,)' 'to play a game,' are illustrations of the same construction.

76. Intransitive Verbs used as Transitives.—

Intransitive verbs are used as Transitives in the following ways :—

1. A Verb, generally Intransitive, is sometimes employed with a Transitive force: thus,—

Intransitive.	Transitive.
The horse <i>walks</i> .	I <i>walked</i> my horse.
He <i>ran</i> there.	He <i>ran</i> the ship aground.
The ship <i>floats</i> .	He <i>floated</i> the ship.
Birds <i>fly</i> .	The boys are <i>flying</i> their kites.
The mother <i>rejoiced</i> .	The mother <i>rejoiced</i> her son's heart.

2. Prepositions following Intransitive Verbs may be regarded as forming with them **compound verbs** which are Transitive. Thus 'I laughed (intrans.) at him,' where the preposition *at* takes an objective case *him*, becomes 'I laughed-at (transitive) him,' where the *him* is the object of the verb. The passive construction can then be employed, and we can say 'He was laughed-at.' So, 'We arrived at this conclusion' becomes in the passive 'This conclusion was arrived-at': 'They came to this decision' becomes 'This decision was come-to.'

77. Transitive Verbs used Intransitively.—

Conversely, there are a few Transitive Verbs which are occasionally employed as Intransitives. The following sentences contain examples of this two-fold use :—

Transitive.	Intransitive.
He <i>broke</i> the glass.	The glass <i>broke</i> .
They <i>moved</i> the boat.	The boat <i>moved</i> .
I <i>slammed</i> the door.	The door <i>slammed</i> .
He <i>opened</i> the lid.	The lid <i>opened</i> .
The sun <i>melted</i> the snow.	The snow <i>melted</i> .
We <i>reformed</i> the criminal.	The criminal <i>reformed</i> .

78. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.—Many Intransitive verbs make no sense as predicates, unless they are followed by some noun, adjective, or verb in the infinitive mood. To say, 'You are,' 'They can,' 'We became,' 'He will,' 'She seems,' is meaningless until we add some word to complete the sense. Thus we give significance to these incomplete assertions, if we say, 'You are idle,' 'You are secretary,' 'You are elected,' 'They can speak French,' 'We became rich,' 'We became partners,' 'He will win,' 'She seems vexed.' Such verbs are called Verbs of Incomplete Predication, and the word or words which are added to make sense are called the **Complement** of the Predicate. The noun, which follows an Intransitive verb of this description as its Complement, is of course in the nominative case, not in the objective.

Certain Transitive verbs require, always or in some of their uses, a similar complement. If we say, 'The king made a treaty,' the sense is complete: but if we say, 'The king made Walpole,' the sense is incomplete until we add the complement 'a peer,' or 'angry,' or 'continue minister.' The verb 'called' is a complete predicate in the sentence 'The master called his valet,' meaning 'summoned him to his presence': it is an incomplete predicate, if it signifies 'applied a name to him,' until the name is added; 'The master called his valet a thief,' or 'lazy.' 'I think you' requires 'a genius,' 'clever,' 'mad,' to complete the sense.

79. Auxiliary and Notional Verbs.—When we come to the conjugation of the verb, we shall see that most of the different forms are made by means of other verbs, which are therefore called **Auxiliaries** (from Lat. *auxilium*, 'help,' because they help to conjugate the verb). The different parts of the verbs *be*, *have*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *do*, are employed as Auxiliaries, and when so employed are the substitutes for inflexions, of which in our English conjugation very few survive.

But the verbs *be*, *have*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *do*, possess meanings of their own, which are dropped when the words are used as auxiliaries. 'He *will* do it' may mean 'He is determined to do it,' as well as 'He is going to do it.' In the former case *will* is not an auxiliary, in the latter it is. *Have* signifies *possess*, when I say, 'I have a bicycle,' but it

is merely auxiliary, when I say, 'I have lost my bicycle.' *May* means permission in 'You may try if you like'; it is auxiliary, when we say, 'You won't find out, though you may try your best.' Verbs which are used *with a meaning of their own*, and not merely as *substitutes for inflexions* in the conjugation of other verbs, are called **Notional Verbs**.

80. Impersonal Verbs.—An Impersonal Verb is one in which the source of the action is not expressed.

A true Impersonal Verb therefore has no subject. Only two examples of true Impersonals occur in modern English, *methinks* and *me-seems*, and these words are seldom used in every-day speech. *Me* is a dative case: hence it cannot be the subject. The meaning of the two Impersonals is the same, viz. 'It seems to me.'

'It rains,' 'it freezes,' and similar expressions are commonly called Impersonal, but they have a grammatical subject, *it*. If we are asked however, 'What rains?' 'What freezes?' we cannot specify the thing for which the *it* stands: the grammatical subject represents no real source of the action.

QUESTIONS.

1. To what class does each of the verbs in the following sentences belong?—'I can do this.'—'How hard it snowed.'—'He slept soundly.'—'They called him John.'—'You look foolish.'—'We praised him.'

2. *Became, thought, is, seems, made, appeared, choose, looks, named.*

(a) Which of these nine verbs are Intransitive?

(b) Form sentences to illustrate the use of each of the nine verbs as a Verb of Incomplete Predication, and point out its Complement.

(c) Show by examples that some of these verbs may be used as Predicates without any Complement.

3. Write sentences to show the Transitive use of the verbs which are used Intransitively in the following examples:—'The wind blew, the shutters rattled, the floor shook, and the glass cracked.'—'Milk turns in thundery weather.'—'Clothes spoil at the sea-side.'—'Wine improves with keeping.'—'Buds open in spring.'—'How far does his fame extend?'—'The clock struck.'

4. Write sentences to show the Intransitive use of the verbs which are used Transitively in the following examples:—'He banged the door.'—'Ice keeps the butter fresh.'—'I ran a pin into my finger.'—'They rolled the logs down the hill.'—'Ring the bell.'—'You will smash the window.'—'It does not pay farmers to grow corn in England.'

5. Treat the verbs in the following sentences—

(a) as Transitives, and insert an Object:

(b) as Intransitives, and insert an Adverbial Objective:

'He survived.'—'I ran.'—'He is swimming.'—'We must walk.'

CHAPTER XII.

THE VERB FINITE.

81. **English verbs retain few Inflexions.**—Verbs undergo changes of form to mark differences of Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person. As Inflexions have almost entirely disappeared from English verbs, we have recourse to Auxiliary verbs and Pronouns to express these differences. An ordinary Latin verb has over a hundred inflexions: an ordinary English verb has seven, only four of which are in common use. The verb *love*, for example, has the forms *love*, *lovest*, *loves*, *loveth*, *loved*, *lovedst*, *loving*, but of these seven, the three forms *lovest*, *loveth*, *lovedst*, are no longer employed in every-day speech.

Let us take the distinctions of Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person, in turn, and consider the means by which they are expressed in English.

82. **I. Voice.**—There are two Voices, an Active and a Passive Voice.

Compare the two statements, ‘He kicked,’ and ‘He was kicked.’ The same word *he* is the subject of each sentence,—the nominative to each verb. But in the first statement, the subject *he* stands for the doer of the act of kicking, while in the second statement, the subject *he* stands for the object, or receiver, of the act of kicking. In the first sentence, the verb is said to be in the Active Voice; in the second, it is said to be in the Passive.

Voice is the form of a verb which shows whether the subject of the sentence stands for the doer, or for the object, of the action expressed by the verb.

The Active Voice is that form of a verb which shows that the subject of the sentence stands for the doer of the action expressed by the verb.

The Passive Voice is that form of a verb which shows that the subject of the sentence stands for the object of the action expressed by the verb.

The parts of the auxiliary verb *be* are used with the perfect participle of a transitive verb to form the passive voice: 'I *am* injured,' 'You *were* beaten,' 'He *is* captured,' 'They will *be* assisted,' 'We have *been* turned out.'

83. The Verb 'be' with Intransitive Past Participles.—You may easily be misled by such forms as 'I *am* come,' 'You *are* arrived,' 'He *is* gone,' 'They *are* fallen,' and may mistake them for passive tenses, seeing that they are constructed in the same way as the passive tenses 'I *am* injured,' 'You *are* beaten,' 'He *is* captured.' Notice this important difference however. *Injured, beaten, captured,* are passive participles, and in combination with 'I *am*,' 'You *are*,' 'He *is*,' they form passive tenses. But *come, arrived, gone, fallen,* are participles of intransitive verbs, and therefore active participles (for intransitive verbs have no passive voice): hence, when combined with 'I *am*,' 'You *are*,' 'He *is*,' they form active tenses, and our idiom allows us to say either 'I *have* come,' 'You *have* arrived,' 'He *has* gone,' or 'I *am* come,' 'You *are* arrived,' 'He *is* gone.'

84. Only Transitive Verbs admit of a Passive use.—When a verb is used in the Passive voice, the subject of the verb represents the object of the action. But Intransitive verbs take no object in the Active voice: there can therefore be no subject of an Intransitive verb in the Passive.

85. Alternative forms of Passive construction.—Verbs which take a Double Object admit of two forms of passive construction, according

as one object or the other is made the subject of the passive verb. A few illustrations will make this clear.

Active.	Passive.
He told me a story.	{ A story was told me by him. I was told a story by him.
You granted him permission.	{ Permission was granted him by you. He was granted permission by you.
They awarded him a prize.	{ A prize was awarded him by them. He was awarded a prize by them.

Construct further illustrations for yourself, using the verbs *promise, ask, refuse, show, offer, forgive*, for the purpose.

86. Retained Object.—This object after the passive verb is called the Retained Object. Thus, in the sentence, 'A story was told me by him,' *me* is the Retained Object. In the sentence, 'I was told a story by him,' *story* is the Retained Object. To determine whether the object thus retained is the Direct or the Indirect Object, apply the following test. With which of the objects can *to* or *for* be used? That object will be the Indirect Object. In the sentence, 'A story was told me by him,' *me* is the equivalent of *to me*. Therefore *me* is the Indirect Object.

87. Quasi-Passive Verbs.—There is a curious use of certain transitive verbs in the active form with a passive meaning. Some of these verbs express sensations: we say of a thing that it '*feels* soft, *tastes* nice, *smells* sweet,' whereas it is really we who feel, taste, and smell the thing. In like manner we say that a sentence '*reads* badly,' that a book '*sells* well,' and that a house '*lets* readily.'

88. II. Mood.—There are four Moods, which are called respectively Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive, and Infinitive. We shall deal with the Infinitive Mood in the next Chapter.

Mood is the form of a verb which shows the mode or manner in which the event is represented.

89. Uses of the Moods.—Let us enumerate the purposes for which the different Moods are employed.

(i) **Uses of the Indicative Mood.**—The Indicative Mood is used—

(1) To state facts: 'The man stole the watch,'
'He will be punished.'

(2) To ask questions: 'Which man stole the watch?' 'Will he be punished?'

(3) To express suppositions in which the conditions are dealt with as if they were facts: 'If it is fine to-morrow' (the condition may be fulfilled, or it may not, but assuming that as a fact it is) 'we will go for a pic-nic.'

(ii) **Use of the Imperative Mood.**—The Imperative Mood is used when we give commands. Commands must be addressed to the person who is to obey them. The person addressed is the second person. Accordingly, the Imperative Mood can be used only in the second person, singular and plural.

(iii) **Uses of the Subjunctive Mood.**—The Subjunctive Mood may be employed to express—

(1) a wish: 'O that I *were* dead!' '*Perish* idolatry!' 'God *save* the Queen!'

(2) a purpose: 'Work lest thou *lose* the prize,' 'Mind that the letter *be* written.'

(3) uncertainty: 'I'll tell him so, whoever he *be*.'

(4) supposition: 'If I *were* you, I would go.'

90. **Decay of the Subjunctive.**—Two facts must be carefully borne in mind respecting the Subjunctive Mood in English:—

(1) Very few Subjunctive forms remain in our verbs:

(2) Very little use is made of those which do remain.

(1) A tense which is expressed by a single word is called a Simple Tense: a tense which is expressed by the help of an auxiliary verb is called a Compound Tense. Confining our attention to the Simple Tenses, we observe that the verb *to be* has a fairly complete set of distinct forms for the Present Indicative and Present Subjunctive, and for the Past Indicative and Past Subjunctive. But in this respect it stands alone. In any other verb, the Past Subjunctive is the same as the Past Indicative, and the Present Subjunctive differs from the Present Indicative only in the 2nd and 3rd persons singular. Thus the sum-total of inflected forms of the Subjunctive in an ordinary verb, such as *steal*, amounts to two. In the Present Indicative we say *Thou steal-est, He steal-s*; in the Present Subjunctive we say *If thou steal, If he*

steal. But for the purposes of every-day intercourse we never employ the 2nd person singular at all. We should say to a man, 'You steal,' not 'Thou stealest.' It is only in the language of prayer and of poetry that the 2nd person singular is still used. Hence, so far as ordinary speech and writing are concerned, there is only one form,—that of the 3rd person singular of the Present Tense,—in which the Subjunctive differs from the Indicative of any verb except the verb *to be*. Of the verb *steal*, for example, *he steal*, instead of *he steals*, is the solitary distinct form of the Subjunctive Mood which might possibly still be employed in conversation.

The following are the Simple Tenses, Indicative and Subjunctive, of the Verbs *to be* and *to steal*: the Past Tense of the Subjunctive of *to steal*, and of other regular Verbs, has the same forms as the Past Tense of the Indicative.

		To Be				To Steal		
		INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE		INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE
		<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>
Sing.	1.	am	was	be	were	steal	stole	steal
	2.	art	wast	be	wert	stealest	stolest	steal
	3.	is	was	be	were	steals	stole	steal
Plur. 1, 2, 3.		are	were	be	were	steal	stole	steal

(2) Observe, in the next place, that we make but little use of those Subjunctive forms which we do possess. Do you ever hear people say, 'If I *be* there, I will get it,' 'Mind that everything *be* finished before dinner,' 'If he *work* hard, he may win the prize'? They would be using the Subjunctive quite correctly, if they talked in this fashion; but the Subjunctive is used so seldom that expressions of this sort would strike us as rather strange. Unfortunately the Indicative has taken to a great extent the place of the Subjunctive, and, in the sentences quoted above, we should be inclined to use Indicative forms of the verb, and to say, 'If I *am* there, I will get it,' 'Mind that everything *is* finished before dinner,' 'If he *works* hard, he may win the prize.'

91. III. Tense.—Tense in English marks two things when we describe an occurrence,—the time when the event happened, and the degree of its completeness at that time. We may define the term as follows:—

Tense is the form of a verb which shows the time at which the event is represented as occurring, and the completeness or incompleteness of the event.

We say that Tense marks the **time** at which the action is described as taking place. Now there can be only three kinds of Time,—Past, Present, and Future. Hence, if Tense indicated nothing but Time, there would be only three Tenses,—a Past, a Present, and a Future.

But Tense marks also the **degree of completeness** of the action. If an action is completed, we may describe it as Perfect, which means ‘finished,’ or ‘done.’ If it is not completed, we may describe it as Imperfect, which means ‘unfinished,’ or ‘not yet done.’ Again, though an action must at any particular moment be either done or not done, we may speak of it without referring to its being done or not done, and our mention of the action will then be, in this respect, Indefinite.

Now, as a Past action, a Present action, and a Future action, may each of them be described as (1) Perfect, or finished; (2) Imperfect, or unfinished; or (3) the question of completeness may be left Indefinite, or undecided, we require nine Tenses to express these differences.

92. Nine Primary Tenses.—The following Table illustrates, from the verb *to write*, the way in which these nine Tenses are formed.

Time	Imperfect, Incomplete, Unfinished, Progressive	Perfect, Complete, Finished	Indefinite
Present	I am writing	I have written	I write
Past	I was writing	I had written	I wrote
Future	I shall be writing	I shall have written	I shall write

93. Remarks on the Tenses.

1. **Modes of Tense Formation.** With the exception of the Present Indefinite and the Past Indefinite, all our tenses are formed by the use of Auxiliaries. The Past Indefinite (sometimes called the Preterite) undergoes inflexion to mark the change of time: ‘I wrote,’ ‘I walked.’

A glance down the columns of Imperfect and of Perfect Tenses, as they appear in the Table, will enable you to see the principle on which these tenses are formed. The Imperfect Tenses are formed by combining some part of *be* with the Present Participle. The Perfect Tenses are formed by combining some part of *have* with the Past Participle. The Future Tenses are formed by combining the verbs *shall* and *will* with the infinitive mood.

2. **Perfect and Imperfect.** Avoid the common mistake of fancying that these terms, when applied to tenses, have any reference to the time of the action. They refer only to its character as finished or as not yet finished.

To gain a clear conception of this distinction, let us suppose that a boy walks from one side of the room to the other. How should we describe his action? We should say, 'He *is walking* across the room': the action is in progress: it is unfinished, or Imperfect. But it is going on at this moment and is therefore rightly described as Present Imperfect. When he has finished walking across the room, we say, 'He *has reached* the other side,' 'He *has walked* across the room.' Does this necessarily imply that the action is past? As soon as the action is finished, it is certainly past. But in saying, 'He has reached the other side,' we are thinking rather that he is there now, than that the action belongs to past time. The action is ended, but it is only just ended, and its consequences continue present with us. If the action and its consequences are over and done with, the Perfect Tense is no longer appropriate. We should not say, 'I have written a letter last week,' but 'I wrote a letter': the action took place some time ago. 'I have written a letter' signifies that my letter has just now been completed, and here it is.

3. **Advantages of our Mode of Tense Formation.** By the aid of Auxiliary Verbs, we are able to express distinctions of time and completeness with a minuteness and accuracy to which inflexional languages, like Latin, are unable to attain.

4. **The Uses of the Present Indefinite** should be noted:—

(1) This tense occasionally expresses an action going on at the present time, but it does this very rarely: 'How fast it *rains*!'

(2) It expresses an action which is habitual, as 'He *goes* to town every morning,' and a general truth, as 'Water *boils* at 212°.'

(3) It expresses a future action, as 'I *go* to town next week.'

(4) It expresses a past action in vivid narrative. 'The Persians *press* on; Leonidas *falls*, and the battle *rages* fiercely.' This is called the Historic Present.

(5) It introduces quotations: 'Shakespeare says,' 'Xenophon describes,' 'The Bible tells us,' 'Macaulay remarks.'

5. **Weak and Strong Verbs.** According to their mode of forming the Past Tense, verbs are called Weak or Strong.

A Weak Verb is one which forms its past Tense by adding *-ed*, *-d*, or *-t*, to the present: *walk-ed*, *love-d*, *dream-t*.

A Strong Verb is one which forms its Past Tense by change of vowel and without the addition of a suffix.

The Past Participle of a Weak Verb is of the same form as the Past Tense: *I walked*, (I have) *walked*.

The Past Participle of a Strong Verb (1) sometimes ends in *-en*, (2) sometimes has a different modification of the vowel from that of the Past Tense, and (3) sometimes is of the same form as the Past Tense: *I drove*, (I have) *driven*; *I sprang*, (I have) *sprung*; *I stood*, (I have) *stood*.

6. **Principal Parts of Strong and Weak Verbs.**—The principal parts of our English Verb are the Present and the Past Tense Indicative and the Past Participle. When you are asked to give the principal parts of any unfamiliar verb, do not attempt to say them off mechanically, for, if you do, you will often say them wrong. Think of them as you would use them in ordinary conversation, with *I* or *he* before the Past Tense, and *I have*, or *he has* before the Past Participle. Thus, when trying to remember the parts of *to spring*, say, *I spring*, *I sprang*, *I have sprung*. Acting on this plan, you will generally get them right. But if you repeat them by rote, you may very likely say, *spring*, *sprung*, *sprang*, without discovering the blunder.

At the end of this Chapter you will find lists containing many of the Strong and of the Weak Verbs, with the Past Tense and Past Participle of each. Several others are mentioned, but their Principal Parts have not been inserted. Make sure that you can supply the Principal Parts correctly yourself.

94. **IV. Number.**—There are two Numbers in verbs. When the subject of the verb is in the Singular, the verb is in the Singular; when the subject is in the Plural, the verb is in the Plural. Accordingly,—

Number is the form of a verb which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

95. **V. Person.**—When we dealt with Pronouns, we saw that there are Pronouns which represent respectively the First, Second, and Third Persons, in the Singular and the Plural Number. A corresponding distinction is made in Verbs, according to the Subject with which they are in agreement. Hence we may define Person as follows:—

Person is the form assumed by a verb according as its subject stands for the speaker, for the person addressed, or for some other thing.

Although we have an inflexion marking the Second Personal Singular, *lov-est*, *loved-st*, these forms do not occur in ordinary speech.

The form of the Third Person Singular Present Indicative, *lov-eth*, is also obsolete in conversation. The suffix *-s* is the only inflexion of Person which survives in common use.

96. **Orthographical Modifications.**—The following changes in spelling, when verbs take inflexions, should be noticed.

1. An *e* at the end of the verb is dropped before another vowel: so, *love*, *lov-ing*; *shape*, *shap-ing*, *shap-en*. (Notice, however, *singing* from *singe*, to avoid confusion with *singing* from *sing*.)

2. To verbs ending in a sibilant, *-es* is added in the 3rd person singular of the present indicative and sounded as a distinct syllable: so *pass-es*, *push-es*, *touch-es*.

3. After a consonant, *y* becomes *ie* when *-s* or *-d* follows: so, *rel-ies*, *rel-ied*: but after a vowel, *y* is kept: so, *play-s*, *play-ed*. (Compare the formation of plurals of nouns in *-y*, e.g. *lady*, *boy*; and of comparatives of adjectives in *-y*, e.g. *merry*, *gay*.)

4. In some verbs *-ayed* is written *-aid*: so, *laid*, *paid*, *said*.

5. A final consonant, preceded by an accented short vowel, is doubled before *e* and *i*, to mark the pronunciation as short: so, *shop-p-ing*, *bid-d-en*, *excel-l-ed*, *prefér-r-ed*; but *differ-ed*, *offer-ed*.

97. List of Strong Verbs.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
abide	abode	abode	ring	rang	rung
awake	awoke	awoke	rive	<i>W.</i> rived	ripen
	<i>W.</i> awaked	awaked	seethe	sod	sodden
bear	bore	borne		<i>W.</i> seethed	seethed
(carry)	bore	borne	sew	<i>W.</i> sewed	sewn, sewed
behold	beheld	beheld (beholden)	sow	<i>W.</i> sowed	sown, sowed
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid	shake	shook	shaken
bind	bound	bound (bounden)	shear	(shore)	shorn
blow	blew	blown		<i>W.</i> sheared	sheared
chide	chid	chidden, chid	shine	shone	shone
choose	chose	chosen	(shew <i>W.</i> shewed	shewn)	
cleave	clave	cloven	show	<i>W.</i> showed	shown
	<i>W.</i> cleft	cleft	shrink	shrank	shrunk (shrunken)
crow	crew		sit	sat	sat
	<i>W.</i> crowed	crowed	slay	slew	slain
dig	dug	dug	slide	slid	(slidden) slid
	<i>W.</i> (digger)	(digger)	sling	slung	slung
draw	drew	drawn	slink	slunk	slunk
drink	drank	drunk	smite	smote	smitten
eat	ate	eaten	stride	strode	stridden
fly	flew	flown	strive	strove	striven
forbear	forbore	forborne	swear	swore	sworn
forget	forgot	forgotten	swell		swollen
forsake	forsook	forsaken		<i>W.</i> swelled	swelled
get	got	got (gotten)	tear	tore (tare)	torn
grow	grew	grown	thrive	throve	thriven
hang	hung	hung	throw	threw	thrown
	<i>W.</i> (hanged)	(hanged)	tread	trod	trodden (trod)
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed	wake	woke	woke
lade		laden		<i>W.</i> waked	waked
	<i>W.</i> laded	laded	wear	wore	worn
lie	lay	lain	weave	wove	woven
mow		mown	win	won	won
	<i>W.</i> mowed	mowed	wring	wrung	wrung

The forms given in brackets are those less frequently used, or used only in special phrases.

The letter *W.* prefixed to forms in the list of Strong Verbs indicates that those forms are Weak.

From the foregoing list of Strong Verbs the following examples are omitted: give the Past Tense and Past Participle of each:—*arise, beat, begin, bite, break, burst, climb, cling, come, do, drive, fall, fight, find,*

fling, freeze, give, go, grave, grind, heave, help, hide, hold, know, melt, ride, rise, run, see, shave, shoot, sing, sink, slit, speak, spin, spit, spring, stand, steal, sting, stink, strike, swim, swing, take, wind, write.

98. List of Weak Verbs.

The following verbs show a departure from the regular formation of the Past Tense and Past Participle in *-d* or *-t*.

Pres.	Past	P. Part.	Pres.	Past	P. Part.
bend	bent	bent	kneel	knelt	knelt
bereave	bereft	bereft	lay	laid	laid
	bereaved	bereaved	lean	leaned	leaned
beseech	besought	besought		leant	leant
betide	betid	betid	learn	learned	learned
bleed	bled	bled		learnt	learnt
blend	blended	blent	leave	left	left
		blended	light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
breed	bred	bred	make	made	made
cast	cast	cast	pen (confine)	penned	penned, pent
catch	caught	caught	pen (write)	penned	penned
clothe	clothed	clothed	read	read	read
	clad	clad	rend	rent	rent
dream	dreamed	dreamed	seek	sought	sought
	dreamt	dreamt	shoe	shod	shod
flee	fled	fled	speed	sped	sped
gird	girded	girded	weep	wept	wept
	girt	girt	work	wrought	wrought
have	had	had		worked	worked

Help had a Strong Past Part. *holpen*: 'He hath holpen his servant Israel.'

Had and *made* are contracted from *haved* and *maked*.

Go (Past Part. *gone*) supplies its Past Tense *went* from *wend*, which is now inflected as a Weak Verb, *wended*.

The following are additional examples of Weak Verbs: give the Past Tense and Past Participle of each:—*bring, build, burn, buy, cost, creep, cut, deal, dwell, feed, feel, gild, hit, hurt, keep, knit, lead, leap, let, lose, mean, meet, put, rap, rid, rot, say, sell, send, set, shed, shred, shut, sleep, slit, smell, spell, spend, spill, split, spread, sweat, sweep, teach, tell, think, thrust, wend, wet, whet.*

QUESTIONS.

1. Change into the Passive all the verbs in the following passage, without altering the meaning of the whole:—'Jones shot my dog. I sued him for damages. My counsel made a capital speech. The jury awarded me two pounds as compensation. The defendant could not

pay the money, so I gained nothing by the action. We made Jones a bankrupt, but that did me no good.

2. Show that each of the following sentences may be expressed in two ways in the Passive. Point out in every instance the Indirect Object.—‘I forgive you the debt.’—‘They refused him a peerage, but offered him a baronetcy.’—‘He offered me the appointment.’—‘You must pay him his bill.’—‘The boy showed the head-master his verses.’

3. Name the Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person, of each of the Verbs in the following sentences:—‘By this time he will have been travelling for sixteen hours.’—‘The river has risen four inches since yesterday, is rising now, and will have overflowed its banks before evening.’—‘If you tell him anything, he always says he knew it before.’—‘Heaven protect the right!’—‘They were arrested last month and have been convicted this morning; sentence will be passed to-morrow.’—‘I am sending word that we shall be going home next Friday.’—‘He treats me as if I were nobody.’—‘He found the ring which had been lost a year before.’—‘When you call to-morrow, I shall be playing the piano, and you will find that I know the piece I was learning when your last visit was paid.’

4. Which of the verbs in the following sentences need correction?—‘Lay it on the table.’—‘He lay on the floor.’—‘The book has lain there since yesterday.’—‘The book has laid there since yesterday.’—‘Let the hen lay there.’—‘Let the dog lay there.’—‘The river has overflown its banks.’—‘He has ate up all the jam.’—‘If it be so, I have made a mistake.’—‘He was quite blowed, when he reached the post.’—‘The town was smitten with pestilence.’—‘I was forsook by my friends.’—‘He was awoke at six o’clock. The bell had rang twice, and they had began breakfast. His father chided him for unpunctuality.’

5. Give the Past Participle of the Verbs—*be, hope, split, seek, proffer, prefer, sew, sow, tie, freeze.*

6. To what Verbs do the following Past Participles belong?—*fled, flown, flung, brought, laden, shown, put, worn, crept, shot, espied, strewn, trodden, clad, chosen.*

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VERB INFINITE.

99. Verbs Finite and Infinite.—The verb *walk* suggests to our minds an action of a particular kind. When I say ‘He walked,’ I represent this action as limited in various ways :—limited as regards number, for it was one person who walked, not several ; limited as regards person, for it was *he* that walked, not *I* nor *thou* ; limited as regards the time when the action took place, for the walking is not described as occurring at the present moment, nor as going to occur in the future ; it occurred in the past. A verb, which expresses an action thus limited in respect of number, person, and time, is called a Finite Verb : the term *finite* means ‘limited,’ or ‘restricted.’

Let us compare the expression ‘To walk’ with the statement ‘He walked,’ and note the difference between them. When I say ‘To walk,’ I suggest to your mind merely the action of walking. I do not tell you whether the action was performed by one agent or by more than one, nor do I tell you who did it, or when it was done. The meaning of the words ‘To walk’ is free from those limitations of Number, Person, and Tense, which are attached to the words ‘He walked.’ As ‘He walked’ and similar forms are said to belong to the Verb Finite, so ‘To walk’ and similar forms are said to belong to the Verb Infinite,—the verb ‘unlimited,’ or ‘unrestricted.’

We may define the Verb Infinite in these terms :—

The Verb Infinite consists of those forms of the verb, which denote actions or states without reference to person, number, or time.

100. Parts of the Verb Infinite.—The Verb Infinite contains (1) the Infinitive Mood, (2) the Gerund, (3) the Verbal Noun, and (4) the Participles.

Leaving for the present the treatment of the Participles, we will deal with the Infinitive, the Gerund, and the Verbal Noun. These three forms are illustrated in the following sentences:—

- ‘To give (*Infinitive*) prizes encourages hard work’;
- ‘Giving (*Gerund*) prizes encourages hard work’;
- ‘The giving of (*Noun*) prizes encourages hard work.’

Now, whether we say ‘*To give* prizes,’ or ‘*Giving* prizes,’ or ‘*The giving of* prizes,’ our meaning is nearly the same as it would be, if we said ‘*The gift of* prizes.’ But *gift* is a Noun. Therefore the forms *To give* and *Giving* are equivalent to Nouns. And as they are parts of a verb, we might describe them as Verbal Nouns. The Infinitive is really a Verbal Noun: the Gerund is really a Verbal Noun. But there are differences between them, and to mark these differences we call them by different names. There is a difference, again, between the words *gift* and *giving*, when we say ‘*The gift of* prizes’ and ‘*The giving of* prizes.’ As the term Noun is already applied to the word *gift*, we distinguish the word *giving* by calling it the Verbal Noun. And we have already distinguished the Noun *giving*, in ‘*Giving prizes*,’ from the Noun *giving*, in ‘*The giving of prizes*,’ by calling the former a Gerund.

101. (1) Infinitive Mood.—The Infinitive Mood is equivalent to a Noun. It can be used as the subject or the object of a verb. Thus, we can say,—

- ‘*To read* improves the mind’: *to read* is here subject.
- ‘He likes *to read*’: *to read* is here object.

The infinitive resembles a noun in this respect also, that it can follow certain prepositions : *e.g.* 'I want nothing *except* to live quietly,' 'He has no hope *but* to escape punishment,' 'You care for nothing *save* to make money.'

The Infinitive Mood commonly occurs in modern English with *to* before it, but there are many verbs which are followed by an infinitive without *to* : the verbs *may, can, shall, will, must, let, do, make*, and certain verbs expressing sensation, *see, hear, feel, need*, are examples. Thus, we say, 'I can *do* it,' not 'I can *to do* it,' 'You must *go*,' not 'You must *to go*,' 'He saw it *move*,' not 'He saw it *to move*.' But after some of these verbs in the passive, *to* is inserted : 'He was seen *to take* it and made *to return* it.'

102. (2) **Gerund.**—The Gerund is a Noun, but it possesses a peculiarity which distinguishes it from ordinary Nouns. Look at these examples of a Gerund :—

'*Studying mathematics* improves the mind,'

'He likes *studying mathematics*.'

Now substitute a noun in place of *studying* :—

'The *study of mathematics* improves the mind,'

'He likes the *study of mathematics*.'

You see the difference in the two constructions. The noun dependent on *study* is in the Possessive case ; we say 'the *study of mathematics*.' But the noun which follows the Gerund *studying* is in the Objective case ; we say 'studying *mathematics*.' The Gerund, though a noun, takes an object, just as the verb from which it is formed takes an object, and we say, 'studying *mathematics*,' just as we say, 'He studies *mathematics*.'

The Infinitive can follow only a few Prepositions, but any Preposition may be used with the Gerund. Thus we can say, *of studying, by studying, from studying, through studying, for studying*, but not *of to study, by to study, from to study*, etc.

The Gerund is defined as follows :—

A Gerund is a verbal noun in -ing, which, when formed from a transitive verb, can take after it an object.

103. (3) **Verbal Noun.**—The Verbal Noun is preceded by *the* and followed by *of*. The forms in -ing are Verbal Nouns in these sentences :—‘*The breaking of* stones is an employment of paupers’; ‘*The rising of* the barometer indicates fine weather’; ‘*The singing of* the chorister was rather flat :’ in the last example we might use the inflected possessive and say, ‘*The chorister’s singing* was rather flat.’

104. **Confused Constructions.**—To blend the constructions of the Gerund and Verbal Noun in the same expression is an error, of which the following sentences afford illustrations :—‘The relieving people’s wants is a duty,’ ‘Reading of trashy novels does much harm.’ We may correct the mistakes, either by treating *relieving* and *reading* as Verbal Nouns,—in which case we must say, ‘The relieving of people’s wants,’ ‘The reading of trashy novels,’—or by treating *relieving* and *reading* as Gerunds, in which case we must say, ‘Relieving people’s wants,’ ‘Reading trashy novels.’

105. (4) **Participles.**—Participles are Adjectives, and as they are formed from Verbs, we call them Verbal Adjectives. But they differ from ordinary Adjectives just as Gerunds differ from ordinary Nouns. The active Participle of a transitive verb governs a noun in the objective case, just as the Gerund of a transitive verb governs a noun in the objective case. The Participle gets its name from this circumstance, that it ‘participates’ in the character of an Adjective and in that of a Verb. Like an Adjective, it limits the meaning of a Noun; like a Verb, it takes an object, if it is the Participle of an active transitive Verb.

Thus, in the sentence, ‘I saw the boy *reading* his book,’ *reading* refers to ‘boy,’ limiting the application of the name, and at the same time takes an object, *book*, just as the verb in its finite forms would take an object : *e.g.* ‘He can read his book.’

106. The Present and the Past Participle.—

The Participle in *-ing* is an active participle. It is usually called the Present Participle, and we shall give it this name, though it would be more properly termed the Imperfect or Incomplete Participle, as it denotes not time but unfinished action,—action still in progress : *writing, healing*.

Our other Participle is the Perfect Participle, denoting action which is completed and no longer in progress. This is commonly called the Past Participle, and we shall employ the ordinary though less accurate name for it. It ends in *-en, -n*, as *beat-en, show-n*, or in *-ed, -d, -t*, as *heal-ed, love-d, slep-t*.

If the verb is a transitive verb, this Participle is passive, but to give it the name of the Passive Participle would often be misleading, for the following reasons:—

(i) The Passive Participle combined with the verb *have* forms tenses of the active verb: *e.g.* 'He has stolen the watch,' 'I had eaten my dinner¹.'

(ii) We have adopted this use of *have* with the Past Participle of intransitive verbs, and we say, 'I have been,' 'I have stood,' 'I have dreamt,' 'I have slept,' though we cannot say, 'I am been,' 'I am stood,' 'I am dreamt,' 'I am slept.' The Participle of intransitive verbs is Perfect, or Past, but it is not Passive.

107. Confusion of Verbal Forms in *-ing*.—The Present Participle is employed, in the conjugation of our verbs, to form the tenses expressing Incomplete action, as you can see by turning back to the Table of Nine Primary Tenses. These Imperfect Tenses are in constant use during daily intercourse. Much of our conversation consists of sentences of this kind,—'What are you *doing*?' '*Writing* a letter.' 'Shall you be *writing* long?' 'Don't keep on *bothering*.' 'But we are all *waiting*,' and so forth,—sentences in which the forms in *-ing* are Present Participles. Hence it comes to pass that beginners (and others too, who answer off-hand instead of taking the trouble to think first,) describe every word in *-ing* as a Present Participle. Sometimes they happen to be right, for Present Participles are common: but sometimes they are wrong, for the word in *-ing* may really be a Gerund or the Verbal Noun. Now to call a Gerund a Participle is like calling a Noun an Adjective, and shows either great ignorance or great carelessness.

¹ For the explanation of this construction, see *The Elements of English Grammar* (Pitt Press Series), p. 147.

108. Conjugation of the Verb.—The collection of all the forms of a Verb, by which we mark its Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person, is called its Conjugation.

We have already seen that our supply of Inflexions is quite insufficient to mark many of the distinctions of voice, mood, and tense, which we wish to express. In conjugating our verbs we therefore make use of other verbs called Auxiliaries. The tenses formed by Inflexion alone are called Simple Tenses: the tenses formed by the use of Auxiliaries are called Compound Tenses. Read through the Conjugation of the Simple Tenses of the verb *break*, and observe how scanty is the supply of forms which it contains.

Verb Finite.

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.		IMPERATIVE.
<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present.</i>
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	break	broke	break	2 <i>Sing.</i> } 2 <i>Pl.</i> } break
2.	break-est	broke-st	break	
3.	break-s	broke	break	
<i>Pl.</i> 1, 2, 3.	break	broke	break	

Verb Infinite.

PARTICIPLES	{ PRESENT: break-ing	INFINITIVE: (to) break
	{ PAST: broke-n	GERUND: break-ing

The Conjugation of the verb *break*, containing the Compound Tenses, will be found set out in a Table on p. 160 of *The Elements of English Grammar*.

109. Work done by the Auxiliaries.—The Auxiliary Verbs are these:—*be, have, shall, will, may, do*. Note the kind of service performed by each in the conjugation of the Verb¹.

Be is used (1) as a Voice auxiliary, forming with the Past Participle of Transitive verbs the Passive: ‘*I am beaten,*’ ‘*to be beaten*’: and (2) as a Tense Auxiliary, forming the

¹ For the detailed treatment of Auxiliary Verbs, see *The Elements of English Grammar* (Pitt Press Series), Chapter XVII. On p. 243 of that book a Table is given showing the uses of *Shall* and *Will*.

Imperfect Tenses in both voices: 'I *am* beating,' 'I *am* being beaten.'

Notice that, with the Past Participle of certain Intransitive verbs, *be* forms the Perfect Active: 'I *am* come,' 'He *is* gone,' 'It *is* fallen.' See § 83.

Have is a Tense Auxiliary, and forms the Perfect Tenses both Active and Passive: 'I *have* beaten,' 'I *have* been beaten,' 'I *had* beaten,' 'I shall *have* been beaten.'

Shall and **will** form the Future Tenses of the Indicative Mood, Active and Passive: 'I *shall* beat,' 'He *will* be beaten,' 'They *will* be beating,' 'We *shall* have been beaten.'

May and **might**, **should** and **would**, are used as signs of the Subjunctive: 'Strive that you *may* succeed,' 'He strove that he *might* succeed,' 'I *should* be glad,' 'This *would* seem to be the case.'

Do is used as an auxiliary in Negative and Interrogative sentences: 'I *do* not believe this,' 'Do you believe this?'

QUESTIONS.

1. Distinguish by name each of the following forms in *-ing* of the Verb Infinitive:—'In running the race he fell.'—'I am fond of fishing.'—'Acting is better than talking.'—'I saw a boy throwing a stone.'—'Riding is a healthy exercise.'—'The bowling of shooters cannot be acquired by practice.'—'He was lucky in bowling several shooters.'—'Bowling shooters, he took three wickets.'—'Bowling shooters is a matter of chance.'—'He earns his living by writing books.'—'The writing of books is his means of earning a living.'—'Writing books is his employment.'—'He is employed in writing books.'—'We found him writing a book.'—'We found him occupied with the writing of a book.'

2. What is the force of the form in *-ing* in each of the following expressions?—'a running footman,' 'a running account,' 'a writing-table,' 'a smoking-room,' 'the smoking flax,' 'an acting manager,' 'a frying-pan,' 'a crossing-sweeper,' 'a freezing reception,' 'a freezing mixture,' 'an eating-house,' 'a managing director,' 'a dissolving view,' 'a laughing jackass,' 'a magnifying-glass.'

3. Give the Past Participle of the following verbs:—*cleave*, *melt*, *drink*, *sink*, *roast*.

What other forms do these Participles commonly assume, when they are used as Adjectives? Prefix these forms respectively to the Nouns *hoof*, *metal*, *man*, *ship*, *meat*.

CHAPTER XIV.

ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS.

I. Adverbs.

110. Function of Adverbs.—Most verbs indicate an action. Now an action may be performed in various ways and in different circumstances. Take, for example, the action of bowling. This action, expressed by the verb *bowl*, may be done well or badly, now or yesterday, here or there. The words, which we attach to the verb *bowl* to mark these differences, are called **Adverbs**. The effect of attaching an Adverb to a verb is to limit the application of the verb. *To bowl* describes the action in every instance of bowling: *to bowl badly* is inapplicable to the action, whenever the bowling is good or indifferent; *to bowl now* is inapplicable, when the bowling took place yesterday; *to bowl here* is inapplicable, when the bowling was performed somewhere else.

Most Adjectives of Quality denote attributes which vary in amount. One way of indicating this variation is to employ degrees of comparison: another is to use Adverbs which express degree. Thus, we say that a thing is '*rather* good,' or '*very* good'; '*slightly* better' or '*much* better.'

Certain Adverbs also can be modified by other Adverbs. We can say, 'He bowled *very* badly,' 'He fielded *rather* well.' The adverb *badly* describes the manner of his bowling, and the adverb *well* the manner of his fielding. The adverbs *very* and *rather* indicate the extent to which the actions were done 'badly' and 'well' respectively.

Hence, we may define an Adverb in these terms :—

An Adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

111. Simple and Conjunctive Adverbs.—Most adverbs are Simple. They contain a meaning in themselves: e.g. 'He thinks so *now*,' 'I live *here*,' 'We were *greatly* pleased.'

A few however have a meaning only when they are taken in connexion with another clause. 'He came *when*,' 'I waited *while*,' 'They are sitting *where*,' are meaningless assertions until the sentences are completed: 'He came *when* I called,' 'I waited *while* he wrote a letter,' 'They are sitting *where* we left them.' These adverbs have the force of conjunctions in joining clauses together. Hence they are called Conjunctive Adverbs.

You remember that the Relative Pronouns have the power of joining two clauses and making one sentence out of the combination. Thus, two clauses are united by the Relative Pronoun, when I say, 'She knows *who* it is.' In the same way, the Conjunctive Adverb *where* unites two clauses, when I say, 'She knows *where* it is.'

112. Classification of Adverbs.—We may arrange Adverbs in groups according to their meaning, as follows :—

- | | | |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| 1. Time | { | <i>when</i> ? now, to-day, then, yesterday, soon, to-morrow |
| | | <i>how long</i> ? always, ever |
| | | <i>how often</i> ? twice, yearly, rarely |
| 2. Place | { | <i>where</i> ? here, near, below |
| | | <i>whence</i> ? hence, thence |
| | | <i>whither</i> ? hither, thither |
| | | <i>in what order</i> ? secondly, lastly |
| 3. Degree, or Quantity | | <i>how much</i> ? scarcely, quite, little, exactly |
| 4. Manner, or Quality | | <i>how</i> ? many adverbs in -ly |
| 5. Certainty | | certainly, not, perhaps |
| 6. Reason and Consequence | | why, therefore, thus |

II. Prepositions.

113. **Prepositions mark Relations.**—In the world around us things stand in various relations to ourselves and to each other. Thus, one thing moves towards another thing, or away from it: one thing rests on another thing, or under it. A thing is produced by us, or for us, or given to us, or taken from us, or fastened on us, or put inside us.

Nouns (or pronouns) are the names of things. How are the relations in which things stand to be expressed?

When the nouns in a language have preserved their Case-endings, some, at any rate, of these relations may be expressed by Cases. But Cases will not suffice for all the relations which it may be necessary to denote, and when Cases fail, Prepositions come into use. The fewer the Cases, the more important is the part which Prepositions have to play.

Suppose that we are speaking of two things called respectively 'a pickpocket' and 'a policeman,' and that we wish to make certain statements about the relations in which they stood to each other; Prepositions will often be needed to express these relations. Not indeed in every instance: if the verb is a transitive verb, the **place** of the nouns in the sentence will indicate the relations between them. When I say, 'The pickpocket assaulted the policeman,' you know that I describe the relations between the two parties as different from what would be meant if I said that the policeman assaulted the pickpocket. The noun which comes before the verb is the Subject and represents the doer of the act. The noun which comes after the verb is the Object and represents the receiver of the act.

If, however, I state that, 'The pickpocket ran away the policeman,' 'The policeman rushed the pickpocket,' the relations are unintelligible, till I insert the Prepositions to mark them, and say, 'The pickpocket ran away *from* the policeman,' 'The policeman rushed *after* the pickpocket.'

Now, as the actual things, policeman and pickpocket,

stood in certain relations, so the nouns, which name the things, stand in certain relations, and these relations are often indicated by Prepositions. The noun, or pronoun, to which the Preposition is attached, is said to be 'governed' by the Preposition and it is in the objective case. Hence we may define a Preposition in the following terms:—

A Preposition is a word which is used with a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word in the sentence.

114. How to know a Preposition.—To decide whether a word is a Preposition or an Adverb, remember that a Preposition is used with a noun or its substitute and governs it: where there is no noun thus governed, the word in question is not a preposition. A few examples will make this clear: the following words are used as—

Prepositions

He is *on* the roof.
Take it *off* the table.
He is gone *down* the town.
It lies *beyond* the river.
We went *along* the bank.

Adverbs

Put it *on*.
Take it *off*.
He is gone *down*.
It lies *beyond*.
Go *along*.

QUESTIONS.

1. Refer to its class each of these Adverbs:—*nearly, perhaps, continually, there, therefore, weakly, weekly, quite.*
2. Write the Adverbs formed (1) from the Adjectives *fine, able, merry, holy*; (2) from the Nouns *home, head, one, day, shore.*
3. How is the meaning of the following sentences affected by changing the place of the Adverb *only*?—'Only Brown passed in French.'—'Brown only passed in French.'—'Brown passed only in French.'
4. Make short sentences in which the following words are used, (1) as Adverbs, (2) as Prepositions:—*up, in, over, above, after, about, before, through, between.*
5. Write sentences containing the following Adjectives, with the Preposition which is used after each:—*fond, different, inconvenient, worthy, dependent, independent, angry.*
6. Indicate in the same way the Prepositions which follow the Verbs *acquit, confer, differ, wait, resolve, sympathize, protest.*

CHAPTER XV.

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

I. Conjunctions.

115. Conjunctions generally join Sentences.—

Conjunctions usually connect sentences, even when they appear to connect only words. Thus, 'He was poor but honest' contains two statements; 'He was poor: he was honest.' 'He is neither a knave nor a fool' means 'He is not a knave: he is not a fool.'

116. Conjunctions defined.—All conjunctions can join sentences together, but all words which join sentences are not conjunctions: if they were, we should have to include Relative Pronouns and Conjunctive Adverbs among Conjunctions. We may therefore give the definition of a Conjunction as follows:—

A Conjunction is a word, other than a relative pronoun or conjunctive adverb, which joins words and sentences.

117. Kinds of Sentences.—As Conjunctions are classified according to the kind of sentences which they join, we must ascertain how many kinds of sentences there are, before the classification can be understood.

A Sentence is a collection of words by which we say something about a thing. The word which stands for the thing about which we make the assertion is called the

Subject of the sentence. The word by which we make the assertion about the thing is called the **Predicate**.

If a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is a **Simple** sentence: 'The general was knighted,' 'He told me this,' 'He gave me a contribution,' are Simple sentences.

If a sentence contains two or more independent clauses, it is a **Compound** sentence: 'The general was knighted *and* presented with the freedom of the city,' 'He *neither* told me this, *nor* did he hint it,' 'He gave me a contribution *but* he grudged it,' are Compound sentences, each of which contains two parts entirely independent. If these two parts formed separate sentences, the sense of the compound sentence would not be affected.

But if a sentence contains two clauses, one of which is dependent on the other, it is a **Complex** sentence: 'The general *who won the victory* was knighted,' 'He told me *that the prisoner had escaped*,' 'He gave me a contribution *because he approved of the object*,' are Complex sentences. The words in italics are not independent sentences: they occupy the place of an adjective, a noun, or an adverb, in relation to the rest of the sentence of which they form a part. Hence they are called **Subordinate Clauses**.

Thus, in the sentence, 'The general who won the victory was knighted,' the clause '*who won the victory*' is equivalent to *victorious* and limits the application of the noun 'general.' It is an **Adjectival clause**.

In the sentence, 'He told me that the prisoner had escaped,' the clause '*that the prisoner had escaped*' occupies the same position as might be occupied by such words as 'the fact,' or 'the rumour.' *The fact*, or *the rumour*, is a noun. Hence the clause, as it takes the place of a noun, is a **Noun clause**.

In the sentence, 'He gave me a contribution because he approved of the object,' the clause '*because he approved of the object*' modifies the application of the verb *gave*, stating *why* he gave it. The words by which we limit the applica-

tion of verbs are adverbs: 'He gave me a contribution *approvingly*,' would express pretty much the same thing as 'He gave me a contribution because he approved of the object.' Such a clause as this, since it takes the place of an adverb, is an Adverbial clause.

The sentences which form parts of an entire sentence we shall call **Clauses**. 'The general won the victory and was knighted' is a Compound sentence consisting of the two co-ordinate or independent clauses: 'The general won the victory,' 'The general was knighted.' 'The general who won the victory was knighted' is a Complex sentence consisting of a principal clause, 'The general was knighted,' and a subordinate adjectival clause, 'who won the victory,' referring to 'general' in the principal clause. 'The general was knighted because he won the victory' is a Complex sentence consisting of a principal clause, 'The general was knighted,' and a subordinate adverbial clause, 'because he won the victory,' modifying 'was knighted.'

There is no way of deciding whether a subordinate clause is an Adjective-clause, a Noun-clause, or an Adverbial-clause, except by using your wits to discover its relation to the Principal clause. See whether it serves the purpose of an Adjective, a Noun, or an Adverb. Exactly the same expression may be employed in different ways in different circumstances. Take, for example, the words *where the battle was fought*, and observe their various uses in the following sentences:—

1. 'The spot *where-the-battle-was-fought* is unknown.'
2. '*Where-the-battle-was-fought* is unknown.'
3. 'I live *where-the-battle-was-fought*.'

In (1), *where-the-battle-was-fought* is Adjectival, limiting 'spot'; in like manner we might say, 'The *exact* spot is unknown.'

In (2), it is a Noun-clause; in like manner we might say, 'The *spot* is unknown,' 'The *fact* is unknown,' 'It is unknown.'

In (3), it is Adverbial, modifying the verb 'live,' just as an adverb would modify it in the sentence 'I live *there*.'

118. Conjunctions are Co-ordinating or Subordinating.—When you have thoroughly mastered the distinction between Compound and Complex sentences, and can determine what kind of Subordinate Clause it is

that any Complex sentence contains, you will find the Analysis of Sentences an easy undertaking. At present, however, we are occupied, not with the Analysis of Sentences, but with Conjunctions, and to Conjunctions we will now return.

Conjunctions are of two kinds, and are called Co-ordinating or Subordinating.

(1) **Co-ordinating** Conjunctions join co-ordinate or independent clauses: *e.g. and, but, either...or, neither...nor.*

(2) **Subordinating** Conjunctions introduce a dependent clause: *e.g. that, after, till, because, though, if.*

119. Kinds of Subordinate Clauses.—The subordinate clauses which a subordinating conjunction introduces are Noun-clauses or Adverbial clauses. Adjective-clauses are attached to the principal clause by a relative pronoun or by a relative adverb; as, 'The general *who* won the victory was knighted,' which is equivalent to 'The victorious general was knighted'; 'The house *where* nobody lives is to be pulled down,' which is equivalent to 'The empty house is to be pulled down.' Noun-clauses are generally introduced by *that*, and occur especially after verbs of saying, thinking, believing, asking, hoping, seeing, and others of similar import: 'I say *that he did it*,' 'I think *that this is so*.' But *that* is not essential to a Noun-clause: thus the following clauses in italics are Noun-clauses; 'I see *how you did it*,' '*When he did it* is not clear.' The words *how* and *when* are adverbs, but they are used here with the force of Subordinating Conjunctions to introduce dependent clauses.

Adverbial clauses occur in the following sentences: 'I will go, *if you like*'; 'He came, *though he was not invited*'; 'I went out *as you came in*'; 'He worked so hard *that he fell ill*'; 'Strive *that you may succeed*'; 'He succeeded *because he worked steadily*.'

II. Interjections.

120. **Interjections.**—We may define an Interjection as a sound which expresses an emotion but does not enter into the construction of the sentence.

As Interjections have no connexion with the grammatical structure of the sentence, there is a very little that we need say about them. Such Interjections as *Oh! ah! pooh!* are mere noises, not words. Others are contracted forms of expression: so, *adieu* is ‘to God (I commend you),’ *goodbye* is ‘God be with you.’

QUESTIONS.

1. Distinguish as Adverb, Preposition, or Conjunction, each of the italicised words in the following sentences:—‘All were drowned *but* one.’—‘Four were drowned, *but* one swam to land.’—‘The boat upset and *but* one reached the shore.’—‘He came *in after* we had finished dinner.’—‘He came *in* a cab *after* dinner.’—‘He dined first and came *in after*.’—‘I shall vote for him, *for* I believe he is honest.’

2. Conjunctions which are used in pairs, (as, *e.g.*, *either...or*), are called Correlatives. Make sentences to illustrate the use of the following Correlatives:—*whether...or*, *neither...nor*, *so...as*, *as...so*, *so...that*.

3. Describe each of the following Subordinate Clauses as a Noun Clause, an Adjective Clause, or an Adverbial Clause, and show that, consistently with your answer, a Noun, an Adjective, or an Adverb, might be used in its place:—‘We must go below *when the boat starts*.’—‘I don’t know *when the boat starts*.’—‘The hour *when the boat starts* varies with the tide.’—‘The boy *who won* was under fourteen.’—‘He asked *who won*.’—‘I thought that *he would win*.’—‘The evil *that men do* lives after them.’—‘This is the spot *where he fell*.’—‘I see *where he fell*.’—‘He broke his leg *where he fell*.’—‘I will come *if I can*.’

CHAPTER XVI.

WORD-BUILDING.

121. Compounds and Derivatives.—Most of the words in our vocabulary have been built up from others, either by joining two words together, or by adding to a word a sound which by itself is without meaning. Thus, by joining the words *free*, *kind*, *foot*, to the word *man*, we have made *free-man*, *man-kind*, *foot-man*: by adding to *man* the syllables *-ly* and *un-*, which have no meaning when they stand alone, we have made *man-ly*, *un-man*. Words formed by the first process are called Compounds: words formed by the second process are called Derivatives.

A **Compound** is a word made by joining other words.

A **Derivative** is a word made (1) by adding a sound not significant by itself, or (2) by modifying an existing sound.

122. Prefixes and Suffixes.—The part not significant by itself, when attached at the beginning of a word, is called a **Prefix**; when attached at the end, a **Suffix**.

Derivatives are generally formed by means of Prefixes or Suffixes: a few however are formed by the change of an existing sound, without the addition of a new sound. Thus from *glass* we get *glaze*; from *sit*, *set*; from *gold*, *gild*. In these cases we have modification but not addition.

Prefixes and Suffixes once possessed a meaning and existed as separate words. Thus the ending *-ly* represents the word *like*: *godlike* and *godly* contain elements originally the same, but *godlike* is now described as a compound, and *godly* as a derivative.

123. Hybrids.—If a Compound or a Derivative contains parts which are borrowed from different languages, it is called a **Hybrid**. Thus, *bi-cycle* is a hybrid, because *bi(s)* is Latin and the remainder is Greek. *Journal-ist* combines Latin and Greek; *mon-ocular*, Greek and Latin; *shepherd-ess*, English and French; *grand-father*, French and English; *false-hood*, Latin and English; *un-fortunate*, English and Latin.

124. Meaning of Compounds.—In Compound words, the first word usually modifies the meaning of the second. A *ring-finger* is a particular kind of finger; a *finger-ring*, a particular kind of ring. In true grammatical compounds there is usually a change of form or of accent. So *spoonful* is a true grammatical compound of *spoon* *full*.

125. Suffixes.—A few of the more important Suffixes are given here for the purpose of illustration. They are distinguished according to (1) their *force*, (2) their *origin*. Not only suffixes which are taken from Latin, but also those which have been derived from the Romance languages, (*e.g.* French, Italian), are described as of Classical origin.

NOUN SUFFIXES.

Diminutives:

(a) Of English origin: *maid-en*, *cock-e-rel*, *pock-et*, *lass-ie* or *bab-y*, *farth-ing* (small *fourth* part), *duck-l-ing*, *lamb-kin*, *thimb-le*, *stream-let*, *hill-ock*, *mead-ow*.

(b) Of Classical origin: *glob-ule*, *animal-cule*, *parti-cle*, *mors-el*, *violon-cello*, *vermi-celli*, *rivu-let*, *lanc-et*, *cigar-ette*.

Notice that some of the latter group are not English formations: the words are diminutives in the foreign language from which we borrowed them, but they are not English diminutives any more than *testatrix* is an English feminine.

Diminutives occasionally express not smallness but (1) endearment, *darling*, *Charlie*, or (2) contempt, *hireling*, *worldling*.

Augmentatives express the opposite idea to that expressed by Diminutives:

(a) English: *drunk-ard*, *brag-g-art*.

(b) Classical: *ball-oon*, *tromb-one* (a big trumpet), *milli-on* (a big thousand).

Agent:

- (a) English: beg-*g-ar*, garden-*er*, sail-*or*.
 (b) Classical: act-*or*, bombard-*ier*, engin-*eer*, secret-*ary*, journal-*ist* (Greek).

Marking feminine gender:

- (a) English: spin-*ster*, vix-*en*.
 (b) Classical: govern-*ess*, testatr-*ix*, hero-*ine* (Greek).

Act, state, quality, are denoted by many suffixes:

- (a) English: free-*dom*, brother-*hood*, god-*head*, dark-*ness*, friend-*ship*, tru-*th*, gif-*t*.
 (b) Classical: bond-*age*, infam-*y*, matri-*mony*, just-*ice*, opin-*ion*, forti-*tude*, liber-*ty*, cult-*ure*.

ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES.**Possessing a quality:**

- (a) English: wretch-*ed*, quarrel-*some*, god-*ly*, wood-*en*, thirst-*y*.
 (b) Classical: leg-*al*, mund-*ane*, lun-*ar*, div-*ine*, tim-*id*, sens-*ible*, frag-*ile*.

Possessing a quality (i) in a high degree:

- (a) English: care-*ful*. (b) Classical: verb-*ose*, glori-*ous*;
 and (ii) in a low degree: (a) English: black-*ish*.

VERB SUFFIXES.**Causative:**

- (a) English: sweet-*en*.
 (b) Classical: magni-*fy* (Latin *facio*).

Other verbal suffixes, derived from a Latin source, are seen in flour-*ish* (Latin *floresco*), facilit-*ate*. The common ending -*ize*, or -*ise*, is of Greek origin: critic-*ize*, theor-*ise*.

Frequentative:

- (a) English: bat-*t-er* (from *beat*), crack-*le* (from *crack*).

126. Prefixes.—The following are a few of the principal Prefixes, classified as English, Latin, or Greek, according to their origin.

ENGLISH:

- a-**, usual meaning 'on'; a-*live*, a-*board*.
be-, from preposition 'by': (i) changes the meaning of a transitive verb, *be-hold*, *be-set*: (ii) converts an intransitive to a transitive, *be-moan*, *be-wail*: (iii) has an intensive force, *be-daub*, *be-praise*.

for-, not the preposition 'for': (i) intensive force, *for-give*: (ii) privative, *for-get*, *for-swear*. Notice that *fore-go* ('to go without'), *fore-do*, should be *for-go*, *for-do*: the verb *fore-go* means 'to go before.'

fore-, as in 'before': *fore-tell*, *fore-see*.

mis-, with sense of 'a-miss': *mis-deed*, *mis-take*.

un-, (i) meaning 'not': *un-wise*, *un-belief*: (ii) marking the reversal of an action: *un-fasten*, *un-wind*.

with-, meaning 'against': *with-stand*, *with-draw*.

LATIN:

a-, ab-, abs-, 'from': *a-vert*, *ab-rupt*, *abs-tain*.

ad-, 'to': *ad-jective*; variously modified, e.g. *ac-cuse*, *ag-gravate*, *al-ly*, *ap-pear*, *as-size*, *at-tain*, *a-vow*.

ante-, 'before,' *ante-chamber*.

bi-, bis-, 'twice,' *bi-ped*, *bis-cuit*.

contra-, 'against,' *contra-dict*, *counter-march*.

in-, (i) 'in': *in-fuse*, *im-pel*, *en-rol*: (ii) 'not': *in-sensible*, *im-possible*, *ir-responsible*.

minus-, 'mis-chief,' with meaning of English prefix *mis-*, but of different origin.

non-, 'not': *non-conformity*.

per-, 'through': *per-secute*, *pur-sue*, *per-jure* (compare 'for-swear').

re-, 'again,' 'back': *re-cur*, *re-turn*.

super-, 'over': *super-fine*, *sur-vive*, *sir-loin*.

vice-, 'instead of': *vice-roy*, *vis-count*.

GREEK:

an-, a-, 'not': *an-archy*, *a-theist*.

ana-, 'again,' 'back': *ana-logy*, *ana-lyse*.

anti-, 'against': *anti-pathy*, *ant-agonist*. In *anti-cipate* however we have Latin *ante*.

archi-, 'chief': *archi-tect*, *arche-type*, *arch-bishop*.

auto-, 'self': *auto-biography*, *auto-maton*.

ek-, ex-, 'out of': *ec-logue*, *ex-odus*.

eu-, 'well': *eu-logy*, *ev-angelical*.

hyper-, 'beyond': *hyper-bolical*.

meta-, 'change': *meta-phor*.

mono-, 'single': *mono-poly*, *mon-arch*.

pan-, panto-, 'all': *pan-acea*, *panto-mime*.

para-, 'beside': *para-graph*.

syn-, 'with': *syn-od*, *syl-lable*, *sym-bol*.

127. Division of Words into Syllables.—A Syllable consists of a single vowel-sound with or without accompanying consonants. *Through* is a single syllable,

though it contains seven letters: *ideality* with eight letters has five syllables. In *through* there is one vowel sound; in *ideality* there are five distinct vowel-sounds, with three consonants dispersed amongst them.

There are no hard and fast rules for the division of words into syllables, when a division is necessary in writing. As far as possible we ought to follow (1) the etymology, (2) the pronunciation.

Hence the hyphen is placed between the prefix or suffix and the root of derivatives, e.g. *en-large*, *man-ly*, and between the constituent parts of compounds: e.g. *ink-stand*, *free-man*.

QUESTIONS.

1. In each of the following words point out the suffix and explain its force:—*lambkin*, *peaceful*, *brighten*, *maiden*, *joyous*, *streamlet*, *coldish*, *darkness*, *reader*, *spinster*.

Give other examples of words which contain the same endings.

2. What is the force of the prefix in each of the following words?—*contradict*, *dissimilar*, *suspend*, *congregation*, *submarine*, *forewarn*, *antidote*, *antecedent*, *unbelief*, *superstructure*.

Mention similar formations.

3. Form verbs by attaching syllables to the following words:—*pure*, *crystal*, *black*, *clean*, *assassin*, *chat*, *spark*.

4. Reverse the meaning of each of the following words by adding a prefix:—*proper*, *similar*, *reverent*, *sense*, *holy*, *audible*, *fortunate*.

5. Attach to each of the following words a prefix or a suffix, and state what change in the meaning of the word has been brought about by the addition:—*just*, *faith*, *friend*, *wise*, *hard*, *joy*, *solid*, *honour*, *man*, *wood*.

6. What force has each of the following affixes?—*circum-*, *per-*, *un-*, *mis-*, *ante-*, *anti-*, *-tude*, *-fy*, *-tion*, *-dom*.

Give examples.

7. Mention words which contain the prefixes *ad-*, *in-*, *ob-*, modified in form.

CHAPTER XVII.

SYNTAX.

128. **The Province of Syntax.**—Syntax deals with the relations of words, when they are arranged so as to form sentences. Most of these relations come under the heads of **Concord** and **Government**. By **Concord**, we mean the agreement of two or more connected words, as regards their gender, number, case, or person. By **Government**, we mean the influence exercised by another word upon the case of a noun or pronoun: thus a transitive verb, or a preposition, is said to ‘govern’ a noun. Owing to the scanty supply of inflexions in modern English, the relation of a word to other words in the sentence is often indicated by its position. Hence we may say that syntax has to do with the **Order** or arrangement of words, as well as with their **Concord** and **Government**. Thus,—

Syntax deals with the combination of words in sentences, their government, agreement, and order.

We shall deal briefly with the Syntax of the different Parts of Speech in succession, beginning with the Noun.

I. Nouns.

129. **Uses of Cases.**—Our remarks on the Syntax of Nouns may be grouped most conveniently under the different cases.

Nominative Case.

The Nominative case is used—

(1) When a noun stands as the **Subject** of a sentence, whether the verb of which it is the subject be active or passive: 'He works,' 'I have been wounded.'

(2) As a **Vocative**, or **Nominative of Address**.

(3) To **complete the predicate** after intransitive verbs of incomplete predication; such as, *to be, become, continue, seem, feel*: 'I continued secretary,' 'He seemed and felt a hero.'

(4) With certain **transitive verbs in the passive to complete the meaning**: 'He was made secretary,' 'I was appointed treasurer,' 'You were called John.' Such transitive verbs are called **factitive** verbs.

(5) When the noun or pronoun, combined with a participle, is in the **absolute construction**. Thus, '*The door being open*, the steed was stolen.'

(*Absolutus* means in Latin 'set free' or 'untied': an *absolute* phrase can be detached without affecting the construction of the sentence.)

130. Participles in Absolute Constructions.—Be careful to avoid the blunder which is often made when a participle is used in a construction which is meant to be absolute. To say, 'Travelling down the line, the castle is visible,' is absurd. For who is travelling? According to the sentence, the castle is travelling, for 'the castle' is the only noun to which the participle 'travelling' can refer. Hence, the statement in this form would mean, 'The castle travelling down the line is visible.'

Take another illustration. 'Being conductor of the orchestra, members of the band followed the hearse.' 'Being conductor' can refer grammatically to no word except 'members.' But members of the band were not conductor of the orchestra. Say therefore, 'He having been conductor of the orchestra, members of the band followed the hearse,'—in which form of expression 'he having been conductor' is a Nominative Absolute,—or say, 'As he had been conductor, members of the band followed the hearse.'

When a faulty sentence is set for correction, as a grammatical exercise, avoid changing the construction more than is necessary for the removal of the error. By casting the sentence in an entirely different form, you raise a suspicion that you have not seen exactly where the blunder comes in, whereas an alteration, confined to the word which is wrong, shows that you have detected the weak place.

131. Order.—The subject precedes the verb, as a general rule, but comes after it—

- i. in questions: 'Did you say so?'
- ii. in commands: 'See thou to that.'

iii. in certain uses of the subjunctive mood: 'Were he here, you would not say this,' 'May you prosper!'

iv. in the phrases, 'said I,' 'quoth he,' 'answered he,' etc.

v. in a sentence which is introduced by *there*, as 'There are some who deny this.'

Possessive Case.

132. Nouns in the Possessive Case have the force of Adjectives.—Possession is only one of the relations indicated by nouns in the Possessive case: 'John's hat' means 'the hat possessed by John'; 'the master's cane' means 'the cane possessed by the master.' But 'Byron's poems' does not mean 'the poems possessed by Byron'; 'Cade's insurrection' does not mean 'the insurrection possessed by Cade'; 'an hour's detention' does not mean 'the detention possessed by an hour.' The term *possessive* is therefore inadequate as a description of the functions performed by this case.

What feature is common to all these uses of the so-called possessive case? The common feature is this: the noun in the possessive has the limiting force of an adjective. Just as 'John's hat' is a particular kind of hat, so 'Byron's poems' are a particular kind of poems, 'Cade's insurrection' is a particular kind of insurrection, and 'an hour's detention' a particular kind of detention.

133. Ellipsis with the Possessive.—How are we to explain such expressions as 'a novel of Scott's,' 'a play of Shakespeare's'?

They are not pleonastic, that is to say, they do not contain any redundancy, or excess, of expression. On the contrary they are elliptical, a noun being left out, on which the noun in the possessive case depends. The complete expression would be 'a novel of Scott's novels,' 'a play of Shakespeare's plays.' Hence we cannot properly say 'a father of John's,' though we can say 'a brother of John's,' for 'a father of John's fathers' would be absurd.

There are other ellipses, or omissions, of the noun which ought to follow the noun in the possessive case, and these we have to supply according to the sense required by the context. 'He goes to St Paul's' may signify in different connexions 'St Paul's cathedral,' 'St Paul's school,' or 'St Paul's station.' 'A picture of Agnew's' and 'a picture

of Gainsborough's' alike require the word 'pictures' to supply the ellipsis, but in the former case the meaning is 'belonging to Agnew,' in the latter, 'painted by Gainsborough.'

134. Order.—The inflected possessive always stands before the noun on which it depends; 'the master's praise,' 'the master's cane.' The preposition *of* and its noun in the objective usually come after the governing noun; 'the praise of the master,' 'the cane of the master.' But for emphasis we sometimes invert the order: 'Of illustrious men, all the earth is the sepulchre.'

Objective Case.

135. Direct and Indirect Object.—The Objective is the case both of the Direct and of the Indirect object. The following are its chief uses.

The Objective is the case—

- (1) of the Direct object of a transitive verb: 'Brutus killed *him*.'
- (2) of the Factitive object: 'They made him *consul*,' 'He called her *Mary*,' 'We thought him a *lunatic*.'
- (3) of the Cognate object: 'I dreamt a *dream*.'
- (4) of a Noun used as the Adverbial adjunct of the Predicate, marking limitations as regards time, space, or degree: 'We stayed a *year*,' 'The ditch is three *yards* wide,' 'This is worth *half-a-crown*.'
- (5) of Nouns and Pronouns governed by Prepositions: 'Drink to *me* only with thine *eyes*.'
- (6) of the Indirect object: the noun in this case stands for the thing to or on behalf of which the thing is done. The verb 'to give' may be taken as the type of verbs which are followed by an indirect object: 'Give *me* (indir. obj.) the book' (dir. obj.).
- (7) of the Pronoun in the two surviving Impersonals, *methinks*, *me seems*.
- (8) after the Adjectives *like*, *worth*, and *near*: 'like *me*,' 'worth *him* and *her* together,' 'near *us*.'

136. Order.—The noun in the objective case usually follows the verb or the preposition by which it is governed. But this order is changed—

- (1) If the word in the objective case is a relative or interrogative

pronoun: 'The book *which* you gave me,' 'Which book did you give me?'

(2) If *that* is used as a relative and governed by a preposition. In this case the preposition comes at the end of the sentence: 'Here is the book *that* you told me of.'

(3) For emphasis: 'Silver and gold have I none.'

II. Adjectives.

137. Concord.—Inflexions marking Gender and Case have disappeared entirely from English adjectives; and the demonstratives *this* and *that* are the only adjectives which admit of the inflexion of Number. Hence we speak of the adjective as 'limiting' the noun to which it refers, rather than as 'agreeing' with it. The term 'agreement' suggests inflexion.

Although collective nouns in the singular are often followed by verbs in the plural, they cannot be preceded by *these* or *those*. Avoid saying, 'I don't like *these* sort of things': say, 'I don't like things of *this* sort.'

138. Construction of Distributives.—*Each, every, either, neither*, are Distributives, and their construction is therefore singular. Hence the following sentence is wrong: 'Each of the sailors answered in their turn.' Say either (1) '*Each* of the sailors answered in *his* turn,' or (2) '*All* the sailors answered in *their* turns.'

139. Errors in Comparison.—The following mistakes are of common occurrence:—

1. Use of the superlative when fewer than three things are compared:—'Which is the *cleverest* of the *two* brothers?'

2. Use of the comparative when more than two things are compared:—'Of the *many* forms of sport, golf is much the *more* attractive to players past their prime.'

3. Omission of *other* with the comparative:—'Jacob loved Joseph more than *any* of his children.' But Joseph was one of Jacob's children.

4. Insertion of *other* with the superlative:—‘Jacob loved Joseph most of *all his other* children.’ But ‘his *other* children’ means all the children except Joseph: how then could Joseph be one *of* the other children? If Smith is the biggest boy in the class, he is bigger *than* any of the other boys, but not the biggest *of* the other boys, for he is not one of the other boys at all.

5. Comparison drawn between things unsuited for comparison:—‘The pond is deeper than last week.’ How can a pond be compared with a week?

6. Pleonasm, or excess of expression:—‘more better,’ ‘more perfect,’ ‘most straitest,’ ‘most universal.’

140. The Articles.—The uses of the so-called Definite and Indefinite Articles are given on pp. 40–1, § 56.

In some instances, the insertion or omission of *a* or *the* affects the sense. Thus, ‘a black and a white horse’ means two horses, one black, the other white; ‘a black and white horse’ means one piebald horse. ‘The secretary and the treasurer’ means two officials; ‘the secretary and treasurer’ means one man who holds both offices. But when it is impossible for any misunderstanding to arise, we may in the plural repeat the article with the singular noun, or use it only once with the plural noun. So we may say, ‘the Old and the New Testament,’ or ‘the Old and New Testaments’; for everybody knows that a Testament cannot at the same time be old and new. But as a horse may at the same time be black and white, the sense might be doubtful, if we spoke of ‘the black and white horses.’

141. Government.—The adjectives *like*, *worth*, and *near*, govern an objective case: ‘I met a man *like him*,’ ‘He is *worth us* two,’ ‘The boy *near me* made a disturbance.’ *Like* is used also as an adverb; ‘*Like* as a father pitieth his children,’ meaning ‘in like manner as.’ But *like* should never be used as a conjunction, followed by a nominative case and a finite verb. To say, ‘He need not have spoken *like* he did,’ or ‘Why didn’t you come *like* you promised?’ is indeed terrible. *As* is the word required.

142. Order.—The Adjective usually precedes the Noun, but is put after it sometimes in poetry, or for emphasis: *e.g.* ‘tempests fierce’ instead of ‘fierce tempests.’

III. Pronouns.

143. Concord.—In so far as Pronouns possess inflexions, they may be said to agree with the Nouns, for which they stand, in Gender, Number, and Person. Their Case is regulated by their relation to their own clause. Thus we say, ‘Your sister borrowed my dictionary yesterday; I met *her* this morning, and *she* gave *it* back to me:’ ‘Let us divide the books; you take *these* and I will keep *those*.’

The anticipatory *It* is used, however, of masculine and of feminine nouns, and of nouns both singular and plural: ‘It is the prince and princess.’ *You*, the pronoun of ordinary address, though applied to single individuals, is followed by a verb in the plural: ‘You are old, father William.’

144. Concord of the Relative Pronoun in Number and Person.—*Who* is used only of persons, *which* (in modern English) of other animals and inanimate things. *That* is used in reference to antecedents of all kinds. The concord of the relative with the antecedent in Number and Person can be seen only in the inflexion of the verb which agrees with the relative. Thus, in the following sentences—

‘I, who *am* here, see this,’

‘Thou, who *art* here, seest this,’

‘He, who *is* here, sees this,’

‘We, you, they, who *are* here, see this,’

the change in the Person or Number of the relative *who* is shown by the change in the verb which agrees with it. *Am*, *art*, *is*, are not in agreement with *I*, *thou*, *he*; they are in agreement with *who*. *I*, *thou*, *he*, are nominatives to *see*, *seest*, *sees*, respectively: *who* is the nominative to *am*, *art*, *is*, and the Person of *who* is determined according as it refers to *I*, *thou*, or *he*.

145. Examples of False Concord.—The following sentences illustrate false Concords (1) of Number, (2) of Person, in the construction of the Relative Pronoun and its Verb.

(1) 'This is one of the most useful books that *has* yet appeared.' *Has* should be *have*. Why? Because its subject *that* refers to an antecedent *books*, and *books* is plural. But the relative agrees with its antecedent in Number; therefore *that* is plural: therefore the verb, of which *that* is subject, must be plural.

(2) 'Thou art he who *hast* commanded us.' *Hast* should be *has*. Why? Because the relative agrees with its antecedent in Person. What is the antecedent of *who*? *He*, and *he* is the pronoun of the Third Person. Give the reason for the correction in this form:—*Who* is here of the 3rd person, because it refers to an antecedent *he*: but *who* is subject of the verb in its own clause; therefore *has* must be in the 3rd person to agree with *who*.

146. Case of the Relative.—The Case of the Relative is determined by its construction in its own clause. Thus, in the following sentences, the antecedent *man* is in the nominative case, but the case of the relative varies according to the requirements of the clause in which it occurs:—

'This is the man { *who* lost his money.'
 whose money was lost.'
 whom they robbed.'

147. Examples of Wrong Case.—Errors in the case of the Relative or the Interrogative Pronoun are seen in the following sentences:—

(1) 'He picked up the man who he had knocked down.' *Who* should be *whom*, object of *knocked down*.

(2) 'Who did you ask to come?' 'Who did you see there?' It is impossible, on grammatical principles, to justify expressions of this sort, though they are constantly employed in conversation. You can see at once that *whom* is the proper case, by throwing the sentences into the shape of assertions: 'You asked *him* (not *he*) to come,' 'You saw *him* (not *he*) there.'

(3) 'Who do you think he is?' This sentence illustrates another common form of expression. It combines two constructions, which are right separately, but wrong when blended. We may say, 'Who is he, do you think?' where 'Do you think?' is added as a parenthesis; or we may say, 'Whom do you think him to be?'

IV. Verbs.

148. **Concord.**—The Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person. Thus we say ‘He is,’ ‘They are,’ ‘Men work,’ not ‘He are,’ ‘They is,’ ‘Men works.’

Observe that—

1. Collective nouns in the singular may be followed by a verb in the singular or plural, according as we are thinking of the aggregate, or of the individuals composing it. We may say, ‘The Committee *were* divided in opinion,’ or ‘The Committee *was* unanimous.’

2. Several nouns, which are plural in form, are usually construed as singular, since their meaning is collective and singular: thus, ‘The news *is* true.’ Other examples are given on p. 30, § 44, (3).

The same explanation applies to our employment of a singular verb with a plural noun which forms the title of a book: the book is singular though the title is plural. We say, therefore, ‘*Gulliver’s Travels* *has* been edited afresh,’ ‘Macaulay’s *Biographies* *is* a reprint.’

3. Two or more nouns in the singular, joined by *and*, require a verb in the plural, unless the nouns are names of the same thing, in which case the verb is singular: so we say, ‘The secretary and treasurer *has* absconded,’ when one man holds the two offices. And on similar grounds, when the different nouns together express one idea, the verb may be in the singular: ‘Two and two *is* four,’ ‘The hue and cry *was* raised.’

4. When a noun in the singular number is joined to a second noun by *with*, or *as well as*, or *in addition to*, the verb is singular. Say, ‘The minister with his secretaries’ (or, ‘in addition to his secretaries,’ or, ‘as well as his secretaries’) ‘*was* present,’ not ‘*were* present.’

5. Nouns in the singular, joined by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular: the force of these conjunctions is to present the subjects as **alternatives**, not jointly.

Hence the following are wrong:—

‘Nor want nor cold his course delay.’ Say ‘delays.’

‘Death or exile were the penalties usually imposed.’ Say ‘*was* the penalty usually imposed.’

6. If *or* or *nor* connects two Pronouns of different persons, perhaps the safest rule would be to make the verb agree with the pronoun which immediately precedes it. Which of the three following forms of expression would you employ?—

- (1) 'Either he or I *are* going,'
- (2) 'Either he or I *am* going,'
- (3) 'Either he or I *is* going.'

You should certainly not say *are*, for *as* or indicates that the subjects are to be taken separately, the verb must at any rate be singular. If you say *am*, the verb agrees with the subject *I*, but not with the subject *he*: if you say *is*, it agrees with *he*, but not with *I*. Avoid the difficulty by saying, 'Either he is going or I am.'

149. Government.—The *Direct Object* and the *Indirect Object* are dealt with on pp. 36, 93; the *Retained Object* in the Passive construction with verbs which take a Direct and an Indirect Object on p. 59; the *Factitive Object* on p. 93; and the *Cognate Object* on p. 53.

150. Moods.—The uses of the Moods are set out on pp. 59, 60. The constructions of the different parts of the Verb Infinite, Noun and Adjective, are given on pp. 70–3.

151. Sequence of Tenses.—What is the rule for the Sequence of Tenses, when a Subordinate sentence follows a Principal sentence?

Primary Tenses follow Primary, and Historic Tenses follow Historic.

Principal Clause

Subordinate Clause

Present	} are followed by	{ Present or Future Indicative, or Present Subjunctive.
Future		
Past	is followed by	Past.

Primary followed by Primary.

Examples:—He says that he is working hard.
 He says that he will work hard.
 He works hard so that he may pass.
 He has worked hard so that he may pass.
 He will tell you that he is working hard.
 He will tell you that he will work hard.
 He will work hard so that he may pass.

Past followed by Past.

He said that he would come.
 He hoped that he might pass.
 He could do it if he liked.
 He had said that he would do it.

152. Reported Speech.—In reproducing the precise words used by a speaker, we quote his speech *directly*. But if we introduce his remarks with ‘He said that,’ or an equivalent expression, it is necessary to alter the pronouns and tenses, and the speech is then reported *indirectly*, or in ‘oblique narrative.’ There is no particular difficulty in turning a speech into Indirect Narrative as a school exercise, for the conversion is one which you perform, and perform correctly, every day of your life.

Let us take a simple illustration. Brown, captain of the Eleven, asks the head-master whether the team may have a holiday for a cricket-match. The master says, ‘I am not sure that I shall be able to give it you.’ Brown goes off to the Eleven and reports the master’s answer in these terms: ‘He says he isn’t sure that he will be able to give it us,’ or, ‘He said he wasn’t sure that he would be able to give it us.’ Jones, a small boy who is not in the Eleven, carries the result of the conversation to other small boys not in the Eleven, and reports the master’s answer as follows: ‘He says he isn’t sure that he will be able to give it them,’ or, ‘He said he wasn’t sure that he would be able to give it them.’ The only difference between the Reported Narratives of Brown and Jones appears in the Pronouns; Brown, as a member of the team, says *us*, while Jones, as an outsider, says *them*.

Thus far it is all pretty plain sailing. When Commands have to be thrown into the Indirect form, the conversion is a little more difficult, because the process is less familiar. You will understand why this is the case, after considering the next example.

Let us suppose that when Brown asks for a holiday, the master gives the reply which you will find printed at the top of the left-hand column in the following table. A week later, three reports are made of the master’s speech, all in the past tense, as the incident is over and done with.

- (a) The Master reports his own words at a Masters’ meeting.
- (b) Brown reports them to his father.
- (c) Brown’s father reports them at his Club.

Notice the differences in the versions.

Master's original speech.	Master reports himself.
What <i>makes you</i> think that <i>I shall give you</i> a holiday <i>now</i> ? <i>Fix your</i> minds on <i>your</i> work. If one of <i>you gets</i> a scholarship, <i>I will</i> talk about holidays.	(I asked) What <i>made them</i> think that <i>I should give them</i> a holiday <i>then</i> ? (I said) <i>Let them fix their</i> minds on <i>their</i> work. If one of <i>them got</i> a scholarship, <i>I would</i> talk about holidays.
Brown junior reports Master.	Brown senior reports Master.
(The master said) What <i>made us</i> think that <i>he would give us</i> a holiday <i>then</i> ? <i>We were to fix our</i> minds on <i>our</i> work. If one of <i>us got</i> a scholarship, <i>he would</i> talk about holidays.	(The master said) What <i>made them</i> think that <i>he would give them</i> a holiday <i>then</i> ? <i>Let them fix their</i> minds on <i>their</i> work. If one of <i>them got</i> a scholarship, <i>he would</i> talk about holidays.

If the reports were introduced by a verb in the present tense, *He says*, instead of being introduced by a verb in the past, *He said*, the tenses would be changed throughout, but the pronouns would not be affected. When no directions are given to the contrary, a passage for conversion to Indirect Narrative is supposed to be introduced by a verb in the past tense, (*He said*), and the reporter is supposed not to form one of the persons addressed.

We remarked that the conversion of Commands might be found rather troublesome. Brown junior, in reporting the master, would probably break away from the Indirect form at the second sentence, and have recourse to Direct quotation,—“‘Fix your minds on your work,’ says he.” It is possible however that he might use the expression which we have put into his mouth, and say, ‘We were to fix,’ or ‘We ought to fix,’ or ‘We must fix.’ The ‘Let them fix’ of Mr Brown senior’s report is too stately for anything beneath the dignity of a parliamentary oration.

V. Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Prepositions.

153. How to know a Preposition.—There are some words which are variously used as Prepositions, as Adverbs, and as Conjunctions. The following sentences illustrate this threefold use of *but*, *before*, *since*.

PREPOSITIONS.	ADVERBS.	CONJUNCTIONS.
I saw nobody <i>but</i> him.	I have <i>but</i> one.	I saw him <i>but</i> not you.
He left <i>before</i> sunrise.	He went <i>before</i> .	He went <i>before</i> I arrived.
I have seen him <i>since</i> Easter.	I have not seen him <i>since</i> .	I will do so <i>since</i> you wish it.

How are such words to be distinguished?

If the word in question governs a noun or pronoun, it is a Preposition. But to distinguish Adverbs from Conjunctions is often a difficult matter, for there are many adverbs, such as *when*, *where*, *how*, which join sentences and therefore do the work of conjunctions. Such words are best called Conjunctive Adverbs, though they are sometimes spoken of as Adverbial Conjunctions.

154. Position of the Adverb.—Adverbs may often be moved about in a sentence without destroying its grammatical structure. Thus, in the sentence, ‘*Meanwhile* the mob continued shouting,’ we may shift the adverb *meanwhile* and put it after *mob*, after *continued*, or after *shouting*. But in many instances the meaning is affected by the change of position. This is especially the case with *only*, an adverb which is frequently misplaced. Take, for example, the sentence, ‘I fancy he asked you to tell her,’ and insert *only* in eight different places. The result will be that you get seven different meanings¹.

155. Use of ‘Very.’—We can use *very* to qualify Adjectives and Adverbs, but we cannot use it to qualify Participles. Before Participles we must say *very much*. When, however, Participles are employed as

¹ Seven, not eight, for ‘only her’ means the same as ‘her only.’ *Only* must not be placed between *to* and *tell*. The insertion of an adverb between *to* and the verb is contrary to English idiom. This faulty construction is commonly called ‘the split infinitive.’ Avoid saying ‘to thoroughly master,’ ‘to utterly destroy.’ Say ‘thoroughly to master,’ or ‘to master thoroughly,’ ‘utterly to destroy,’ or ‘to destroy utterly.’

Adjectives, they may be qualified by *very*. Thus, we may say, 'He spoke in a *very* injured tone,' but not 'He was *very* injured': in the latter case we must say, 'He was *very much* injured.'

156. Construction of 'Than.'—As *than* is now simply a conjunction, it should be followed by the same case as the case of the word denoting the thing with which the comparison is made. Thus, 'I like you better than he,' and 'I like you better than him,' are both correct, but with different meanings. Supplying the ellipses, we get in the former sentence, 'I like you better than he *likes you*'; in the latter, 'I like you better than *I like* him.'

157. Ellipsis a cause of error.—Ellipsis, arising from the desire to be brief, is a frequent cause of error. We say, 'You are as good or better than he,' where *as* is required after *good* to make the sentence formally correct. So, again, in the sentence, 'You work harder but not so successfully as he,' *harder* requires *than*. To supply these missing words and to say, 'You are as good as or better than he,' 'You work harder than but not so successfully as he,' would be to employ modes of speech too elaborately precise for every-day purposes. We can steer clear of an error of syntax on the one hand, and of pedantry on the other, by saying, 'You are as good as he, or better,' 'You work harder than he does, but not so successfully.'

158. Omission of 'That.'—The conjunction *that* is often omitted; 'He said (that) he was going,' 'I thought (that) I had done it.'

159. Correlative Conjunctions.—Conjunctions which occur in pairs are called Correlative. Such are *though...yet*, *either...or*, *whether...or*, *both...and*.

Be careful, when you use the word *neither*, to use *nor* as its correlative, not *or*. Be careful also to put *neither* in its right place, before the word which indicates one of the things to be excluded. If I say, 'You neither eat butter or jam,' I make two mistakes in the same sentence: *or* should be *nor*, and *neither* should be placed before *butter*. If I had said, 'You neither eat nor care for butter or jam,' the position of *neither* would have been right.

SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION.

Show that the following sentences are faulty, and correct them.

1. Observing the house on fire, the engines were sent for.
2. Being a warm day, I wore no overcoat.
3. Standing on the bridge, the view is magnificent.
4. Cheered by their approval, his progress was rapid.
5. Sitting at the open window, a chill settled on his lungs.

6. You ought not to use these kind of arguments.
7. I hear that each of the policemen were injured.
8. Each of the combatants think themselves right.
9. Are either of these statements true?
10. Every one of the houses were flooded.
11. None but the brave deserve the fair.
12. Either of the two essays are good, but yours is the best.
13. Of all other Constitutions, the English is the most perfect.
14. Iron is more useful than any metal.
15. The population of Glasgow is greater than Edinburgh.
16. He won renown in the Old and New World.
17. I saw a black and white man arm in arm.
18. The chairman and secretary sat opposite each other.
19. He walks just like a duck waddles.
20. Nobody writes quite like you do.
21. I am one of those who is disgusted at his conduct.
22. This is one of the bedrooms that has a fire-place.
23. Who is that parcel for?
24. Whom do people say that he is?
25. Whom they were, I must not disclose.
26. I can't think who he meant.
27. Nothing but novels and plays interest him.
28. The beauties of the landscape charms the tourist.
29. The range of his accomplishments surprise me.
30. Not a line of your verses are written correctly.
31. Variety in one's amusements are desirable.
32. The jury were unanimous in its opinion.
33. *The Newcomes* were written by Thackeray.
34. The captain with the other officers were drowned.
35. The building, in addition to its contents, were destroyed.
36. They could not guess where I or my brother were.
37. Our success or our failure generally depend on ourselves
38. Will you let my brother and I go for a walk?
39. I only want a few shillings to make up the amount.
40. He will be very annoyed by your conduct.
41. They are worse off than us.
42. He is as strong or stronger than I.
43. No one plays more skilfully or as successfully as he.
44. Neither his happiness or his misery were deserved.
45. Everybody except he knows the reason.
46. There is nobody but you and I that saw it done.
47. Let this be a secret between you and I.
48. This case is entirely different to that.
49. I was there as well as him.
50. Your cousin is not so clever as her.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES AND PARSING.

160. Two-fold Classification of Sentences.—

By far the greater number of sentences express a Statement, or a Command, or a Question. There remains, however, still another type of sentence, which must be mentioned for the sake of completeness,—a sentence in which we give utterance to a Wish, but do not express the Wish in the form of a Statement. The following are examples of sentences of this sort: ‘O that he were here!’ ‘May you prosper!’ ‘Heaven defend the right!’ In poetry and on the stage, expressions such as these are to be met with, but in every-day life we make known our wishes in the form of statements, and say, ‘I wish he were here,’ ‘I hope you will prosper,’ ‘I pray that Heaven will defend the right.’

If we define a Sentence as the **complete expression of a thought in words**, our definition will cover the four varieties of sentences mentioned above, which are called respectively (1) Declaratory, (2) Imperative, (3) Interrogative, (4) Optative.

You will find it useful at this point to read again § 117, in the Chapter on Conjunctions. For a reference to this paragraph will remind you that Sentences may be classified, on quite a different principle, as Simple, Compound, or Complex. Sentences of these three kinds are distinguished as follows :—

A **Simple Sentence** contains only one subject and one finite verb.

A **Compound Sentence** contains two or more independent clauses, joined by co-ordinating conjunctions.

A **Complex Sentence** contains a clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction.

Declaratory, Imperative, Interrogative, and Optative Sentences, may be either Simple, Compound, or Complex, in form. Thus, 'Go and see' is an Imperative Compound sentence; 'Go as soon as you can' is an Imperative Complex sentence; 'Did you find him and tell him?' is Interrogative and Compound; 'Did you tell him when you found him?' is Interrogative and Complex; 'May you win the prize and be happy' is Optative and Compound; 'May you be happy when you win the prize' is Optative and Complex.

161. Sentences treated as Declaratory in Analysis.—In the Analysis of Sentences, the distinction between Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentences, is of the highest importance. The distinction between Declaratory, Imperative, Interrogative, and Optative Sentences, on the contrary, is here of no importance at all. For purposes of Analysis, we may treat every sentence as if it belonged to the Declaratory class. Thus, we may regard 'Stand (you) there' as equivalent to 'You stand there'; 'Did you find him?' as equivalent to 'You did find him'; 'May you be happy!' as equivalent to 'You may be happy.'

Hence we may fall back on our old description of a Sentence as a collection of words by means of which we say something about a thing. It is true that this description applies only to sentences in which assertions are made; but the parts of which any sentence, (whether it be Imperative, Interrogative, or Optative), is made up, are the same as the parts of which the corresponding Declaratory sentence consists. And what we have to do, in analysing any sentence, is to break it up into these parts and to point out their relations.

162. Subject and Predicate.—Now, whenever we make an assertion about a thing, we use a word to name the thing, and a word to express the assertion. These we call respectively Subject and Predicate, and both Subject and

Predicate, expressed or understood, every sentence must contain.

The Subject of the sentence is the word which stands for the thing about which the assertion is made.

The Predicate is the word by means of which the assertion is made.

163. Different kinds of Subjects.—The Subject of a sentence must be a Noun or the equivalent of a noun. The following sentences illustrate different kinds of Subjects:—

1. **Noun**:—‘*Birds* fly.’
2. **Pronoun**:—‘*They* were defeated.’
3. **Infinitive**:—‘*To err* is human.’
4. **Adjective with noun understood**:—‘*Rich* and *poor* live together.’
5. **Noun-clause**:—‘*That he did it* is certain.’

164. Attributive Adjuncts of the Subject.—When the adjective *white* is joined to the noun *horse*, the noun is said to be **expanded**, or **extended**. *White horse* implies all the attributes or qualities of *horse*, and the attribute or quality of *whiteness* besides. Consequently, the application of the noun is limited. The things, to which we can give the name of *white horse*, are fewer than the things, to which we can give the name of *horse*, because the meaning of *white horse* includes the possession of a quality which is absent from every horse which is not white.

Adjectives, or their equivalents, attached to nouns in this way, are called *Attributive Adjuncts*:—‘Attributive,’ because they imply the possession of attributes or qualities; ‘Adjuncts,’ because they are joined on to the nouns.

Attributive Adjuncts are of the following kinds:—

1. **Adjective**:—‘*Good* wine needs no bush.’
2. **Noun in Apposition**¹:—‘Turner, *the artist*, died at Chelsea.’

¹ When a noun is used to explain another, it is put in the same case, and is said to be in Apposition.

3. **Noun in the Possessive Case** :—‘*Lucy’s* love restrained him,’ or its equivalent with *of*, ‘The love *of Lucy* restrained him.’

4. **Adjective-clause** :—‘The man *who stole the money* was arrested.’

5. **Adjective-phrase** :—‘The man, *unsuspicious of any charge against him*, left the town.’

6. **Participle** :—‘The army retired, *defeated and desponding*.’

165. The Object and its Adjuncts.—A Transitive Verb is followed by a Noun as its Object. You have seen what substitutes can be used for the noun when it stands as Subject of a Sentence. Just the same substitutes can be used for the noun as Object. You have also seen how the Subject can be enlarged, or expanded, by Attributive Adjuncts. Just the same enlargements, or expansions, can be applied to the Object. Make sentences containing these substitutes for the noun as Object, and other sentences in which the Object is enlarged, or expanded, by Attributive Adjuncts.

166. Complement of Predicate.—The Predicate is a verb, or contains a verb. The sentence ‘Birds fly’ contains a complete predicate ‘fly.’ But in ‘They are,’ ‘I shall be,’ ‘You became,’ something is wanting to make sense; the verbs are incomplete predicates and require a **Complement** to produce a meaning: *e.g.* ‘They are *happy*,’ ‘I shall be *there*,’ ‘You became *secretary*.’

Again, some verbs need another verb in the Infinitive mood to carry on, or complete, their construction. Thus, ‘I wish,’ ‘You must,’ are meaningless unless we supply, in thought or expression, some complement; *e.g.* ‘I wish *to go*,’ ‘You must *remain*.’ These infinitives are called **Pro-lative**.

167. Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.—Just as an Adjective limits the application of a Noun, so an Adverb limits the application of a Verb. ‘Sings sweetly’ cannot be affirmed of as many individuals as simply ‘sings,’ but it signifies more. When we say of a *prima donna*, ‘She

sings sweetly,' our statement goes further in the way of conveying information than the statement that 'She sings.' We may therefore describe the adverb *sweetly* as an **enlargement** or **extension** of the Predicate *sings*, because it adds to the meaning of the Predicate, though it narrows or restricts its application.

The principal Adverbial Adjuncts by which the Predicate is **extended** or **expanded** are these:—

1. **Adverb**:—‘He batted *well*.’
2. **Adverbial clause**:—‘He left *when I arrived*.’
3. **Adverbial phrase**: ‘He batted *in fine style*.’
4. **Nominative Absolute**:—‘*The door being open*, the steed was stolen.’

The last is a particular kind of Adverbial Phrase.

168. Clause and Phrase.—We have spoken of an Adjectival Clause, an Adverbial Clause, and of an Adjectival Phrase, an Adverbial Phrase. Note the difference of meaning between the terms *Clause* and *Phrase*. A collection of words, forming a part of a sentence, is called a *Clause*, if there is a finite verb amongst them: if there is no finite verb amongst them, it is called a *Phrase*.

To illustrate this distinction, let us take the following sentence: ‘The boy got the prize.’ We enlarge the subject *boy* with an Adjectival Clause, when we say, ‘The boy, *who was industrious*, got the prize’; we enlarge the subject *boy* with an Adjectival Phrase, when we say, ‘The boy, *possessed of industrious habits*, got the prize.’ In like manner, we enlarge the predicate *got* with an Adverbial Clause, when we say, ‘The boy got the prize *because nobody else went in for it*’; we enlarge the predicate *got* with an Adverbial Phrase, when we say, ‘The boy got the prize *in a very easy fashion*.’

169. Hints for the Analysis of a Sentence.—We saw that, for purposes of Analysis, every sentence, whether Imperative, Interrogative, or Optative, might be treated as if it were a Declaratory sentence. It will simplify matters, if we confine our attention to sentences in which assertions are made, and the results can be readily applied to sentences expressing a Command, a Question, or a Wish.

Suppose, then, that a sentence is placed before you, and that you are told to analyse it. How are you to go to work? Read it through and ask yourself the questions,—‘What is the thing that it tells me about?’ and ‘What does it tell me about the thing?’ The word, which stands for the thing, is the Subject. The word, by means of which the statement is made, is the Predicate. If the sentence consists of only two words, the analysis is soon done. The sentence, ‘Time flies,’ is analysed when you have put down ‘Subject, *Time*, Predicate, *flies*.’ But perhaps the Sentence contains twenty words, or fifty words. No matter how long it is; in every case you will find that there is some word standing for the thing about which the assertion is made. Find this Subject and its Predicate. Find the Object, if there is one. Then look for all the Adjuncts which cluster round them. If the sentence contains any subordinate clauses, find in like manner the Subject, Predicate, and Object, with their Adjuncts, of each subordinate clause. When every part of the original sentence has been accounted for in this way, you have analysed the sentence.

To learn how to analyse sentences correctly, two things are requisite: practice and common sense. You may find the following suggestions of some help at the start, and the examples of analysis in tabular form useful for occasional reference later on; but rules, repeated by rote, will never serve as substitutes for the use of your brains in the Analysis of Sentences.

1. Take a large sheet of paper, divide it into columns, and write headings, following the tabular forms given on pp. 112—3 as your guide.

2. Read the passage over and consider carefully whether it is a Simple, a Compound, or a Complex Sentence, with which you are dealing. Describe it accordingly at the top of the page. Remember that, wherever you find a finite verb, you have got a separate clause. Supposing that the Sentence is Complex, make sure that you pick out the Principal Clause correctly: a mistake here will turn the whole into nonsense. Then determine what is the relation of the different Subordinate Clauses to the parts of the Principal Clause. This general outline is the element of chief value in the entire product.

3. Write down the Principal Clause at the head of your analysis. Find its Subject; then find its Predicate; then, if the verb is transitive, set down the Object.

4. If a Noun-clause forms the Subject or Object of the Principal Sentence, you must insert this Noun-clause, when you write the Principal Clause at the head of your analysis. Thus, in the Complex Sentence '*How he did it* is not certain,' the words *How he did it* are the subject of the predicate 'is not certain.' In the Complex Sentence 'I know *how he did it*,' the words *how he did it* are the object of the principal verb 'I know.' The sentence 'How he did it is not certain' should be written thus:—'*How he did it* (Noun Cl.) is not certain.' To describe as a Principal clause the words 'is not certain' without supplying their subject, would be absurd. Similarly, the sentence 'I know how he did it,' should be written in this form:—'I know *how he did it*' (Noun Cl.).

5. Look for the Adjuncts of Subject, Predicate, and Object. The Adjuncts of the Predicate will be adverbial. The Adjuncts of the Subject or Object will generally be adjectival.

6. If a sentence is elliptical, add what is wanting. Supply the subject to sentences containing a verb in the Imperative mood. 'Come' must be treated as if it were 'Thou come' or 'You come.' 'I am stronger than you' in full is 'I am stronger *than you are strong*'; 'I am as strong as you' in full is 'I am as strong *as you are strong*.' The clauses in italics are adverbial adjuncts.

7. Deal with the Subordinate Clauses as you have dealt with the Principal Clause, setting out the Subject, Predicate, and Object of each, with their respective Adjuncts, in the proper columns.

170. Examples of Analysis in tabular form.

A. Breathes there the man with soul so dead?

Who never to himself hath said,

'This is my own, my native land!'

B. We left behind the painted buoy,

That tosses at the harbour-mouth;

And madly danced our hearts with joy,

As fast we fled to the South.

How fresh was every sight and sound

On open main or winding shore!

We knew the merry world was round,

And we might sail for evermore.

A. A Complex Sentence:

Principal Clause, 'Breathes there the man.'

	Sentence or Clause	Kind of Sentence	Subject	Adjuncts of Subject
A.	Breathes there the man... ...my native land	Complex	man	1. with soul so dead 2. who never...land
	Who never to himself... ...my native land	Complex Adj. Cl. lim. <i>man</i>	who	
	This is...my native land	Noun Cl.	this	

B. Contains three Sentences, (I.) Compound and Complex.

(II.) Compound.

(III.) Complex.

Principal Clauses of (I.), 1. We left behind the painted buoy.

2. Madly danced our hearts with joy.

	Sentence or Clause	Kind of Sentence	Subject	Adjuncts of Subject
B.	(I.) 1. We left behind... ...harbour-mouth That tosses...mouth	Complex Adj. Cl. lim. <i>buoy</i>	we that	
	2. Madly danced... ...the south	Complex	hearts	our
	As fast we.....the south	Adv. Cl. lim. <i>danced</i>	we	
	(II.) 1—4. How fresh was... ...shore	Compound	sight } sound }	{ on main { on shore
	(III.) We knew...evermore	Complex	we	
	1. The merry...round	Noun Cl.	world	merry
	2. We might...evermore	Noun Cl.	we	

Predicate	Adjuncts of Predicate	Object	Adjuncts of Object
breathes	there		
hath said	never, to himself	This is my...land	
is <i>Incompl.</i> my...land <i>Compl.</i>			

Clauses of (II.), $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ Every sight} \\ 2. \text{ Every sound} \\ 3. \text{ Every sight} \\ 4. \text{ Every sound} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{on open main} \\ \text{on winding shore} \end{array} \right\} \text{ was fresh.}$

Prin. Cl. of (III.), We knew $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ the world was round (Noun Cl.).} \\ 2. \text{ we might sail for ever (Noun Cl.).} \end{array} \right\}$

Predicate	Adjuncts of Predicate	Object	Adjuncts of Object
left	behind	buoy	1, painted, 2, that tosses...mouth
tosses	at the...mouth		
danced	1, madly, 2, with joy, 3, as fast ...south		
fleeted	1, fast, 2, to the south		
was <i>Incompl.</i> fresh <i>Compl.</i>	how <i>Adjunct of</i> <i>Compl.</i>		
knew		1, the merry ...round 2, we might ...evermore	
was <i>Incompl.</i> round <i>Compl.</i> might <i>Incompl.</i> sail <i>Compl.</i>	for evermore <i>Adj. of Compl.</i>		

171. Directions for Parsing.—In parsing, we deal with every word in a sentence separately, stating (1) its Part of Speech, (2) its inflexion, if it has any, and (3) its syntactical relations with other words in the sentence. Thus parsing is concerned with both the etymology and the syntax of words, whilst analysis takes no cognisance of their etymology.

To parse words belonging to the different Parts of Speech, give the following information:—

1. **Noun or Pronoun.** State the kind of noun or pronoun, its gender, number, case, and give the reason why the word is in that case. The gender of a pronoun cannot always be determined.

2. **Adjective.** State the kind of adjective and its degree, and what word it limits. As adjectives (except *this* and *that*) undergo no inflexions of number, gender, or case, it is better to speak of them as 'limiting' nouns than as 'agreeing' with nouns.

3. **Verb.** State the kind of verb, its voice, mood, tense, number, person; the subject with which it agrees, and its object, if it has one.

Participle. State the kind of verb of which it is a participle, its voice and tense, and show which word it limits; mention its object, if it has one. The participle used in combination with auxiliaries to form a compound tense need not be parsed separately, though it may be parsed in this way. So, *shall have been beaten, were beating, may have been beating*, are adequately parsed as compound tenses, but you should be able to state the construction of the separate words.

4. **Adverb.** State the kind of adverb; its degree, if it is an adverb of quality admitting of this modification: name the word which it limits, or 'qualifies.' The latter is the term generally used of adverbs.

5. **Preposition.** Name the noun which it 'governs,' that is to say, the noun whose relation to other words it indicates.

6. **Conjunction.** Say whether it is co-ordinate or subordinate, and point out what it joins.

Use **abbreviations**, but take care that they are free from ambiguity. Use no abbreviation of fewer than three letters, and let the same abbreviation always stand for the same word. *Prn.* must not mean 'pronoun' in one line and 'preposition' in another. *Imper.* might signify 'impersonal,' or 'imperfect,' or 'imperative.' In such cases, economy of letters is misleading. Give the particulars in uniform order and as concisely as possible.

172. Examples of Parsing.

And while the wings of Fancy still are free,
 And I can view this mimic show of thee,
 Time has but half succeeded in his theft—
 Thyself removed, thy power to soothe me left.

<i>while</i>	subord. adv. conjunc. joining <i>Time has succeeded</i> and <i>wings are free</i> . (Or conj. adv. of time.)
<i>the</i>	demonst. adj., called def. art.—limiting <i>wings</i> .
<i>wings</i>	com. noun—neut. pl. nom.—subj. of <i>are</i> (<i>free</i>).
<i>of</i>	prep.—gov. <i>Fancy</i> .
<i>Fancy</i>	com. noun, used here as a sing. noun—neut. sing. obj.—gov. by <i>of</i> . (Or here fem., <i>Fancy</i> being personified.)
<i>still</i>	adv. of time—qualif. <i>are free</i> .
<i>are</i>	verb defect. intrs. of incompl. predic.—act. indic. pres. pl. 3rd—agreeing with <i>wings</i> .
<i>free</i>	adj. of quality,—posit.—compl. of pred. <i>are</i> .
<i>and</i>	coord. conj.—joining <i>wings are free</i> and <i>I can view</i> .
<i>I</i>	pers. pron. of 1st pers.—sing. nom.—subj. of <i>can</i> (<i>view</i>).
<i>can</i>	verb defect. intrs. of incompl. pred.—act. indic. pres. sing. 1st—agreeing with <i>I</i> .
<i>view</i>	verb trs.—act. infin. pres.—prolat. infin. depending on <i>can</i> : has for obj. <i>show</i> .
<i>this</i>	demons. pronom. adj.—sing.—limiting <i>show</i> .
<i>mimic</i>	adj. of qual.—posit.—lim. <i>show</i> .
<i>thee</i>	pers. pron. of 2nd pers.—sing. obj.—gov. by <i>of</i> .
<i>Time</i>	sing. noun—masc. sing. nom., <i>Time</i> being here personified—subj. of <i>has</i> .
<i>has</i>	verb trs. aux.—act. indic. pres. indef. sing. 3rd—forms with <i>succeeded</i> act. indic. pres. perf. of intrs. verb <i>succeed</i> .
<i>succeeded</i>	partic. past act. of intrs. verb <i>succeed</i> .
<i>but</i>	adv. of degree—limiting <i>half</i> .
<i>half</i>	adj. of quant. used as adv. of degree—lim. <i>succeeded</i> .
<i>his</i>	possess. pronom. adj. (originally demons. pron. of 3rd pers.—masc. sing. possess.)—limiting <i>theft</i> .
<i>theft</i>	com. noun—neut. sing. obj.—gov. by <i>in</i> .
<i>thyself</i>	reflex. pron. of 2nd pers., used here with emphatic force for <i>thou</i> —sing. nom. absolute.
<i>removed</i>	partic. past pass. of trs. verb <i>remove</i> —lim. <i>thyself</i> .
<i>thy</i>	possess. pronom. adj. (originally pers. pron. of 2nd pers.—sing. possess.)—limiting <i>power</i> .
<i>to soothe</i>	verb trs. act.—gerundial infin. pres.—has for obj. <i>me</i> .
<i>me</i>	pers. pron. of 1st pers.—sing. obj.—gov. by <i>soothe</i> .

PASSAGES FOR ANALYSIS.

1. Fine feathers make fine birds.
2. Evil communications corrupt good manners.
3. Charity shall cover the multitude of sins.
4. People who live in glass houses should never throw stones.
5. No man can serve two masters.
6. On a winged word hath hung the destiny of nations.
7. Good words cost nothing and are worth much.
8. We have scotched the snake, not killed it.
9. Remember Lot's wife.
10. Drowsiness shall clothe a man with rags.
11. Can the Ethiopian change his skin?
12. Every man shall bear his own burden.
13. What shadows we are, and what shadows we pursue!
14. He doeth much, that doeth a thing well.
15. When Greek joined Greek, then was the tug of war.
16. He that loveth another hath fulfilled the law.
17. Who knows not that Truth is strong?
18. O, what a fall was there, my countrymen!
19. As we advance in life, we learn the limits of our abilities.
20. If the sky fall, we shall catch larks.
21. They, whom truth and wisdom lead,
Can gather honey from a weed.
- 22. Cowards die many times before their deaths:
The valiant never taste of death but once.
23. Smooth runs the water where the brook is deep.
24. Truth provokes those whom it does not convert.
25. Ignorance shuts its eyes and believes it is right.
26. Three may keep a secret, if two of them are dead.
27. They never taste who always drink,
They always talk who never think.
28. Thou shalt not muzzle the ox that treadeth out the corn.
29. But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page
Rich with the spoils of Time did ne'er unroll;
Chill penury repressed their noble rage,
And froze the genial current of the soul.
30. Childhood shows the man as morning shows the day.
31. If a man write a book, let him set down only what he knows.
32. Those only deserve a monument who do not need one.

33. Make hay while the sun shines.
34. Be wise to-day ; 'tis madness to defer.
35. Poets utter great and wise things which they do not themselves understand.
36. Children sweeten labours, but they make misfortunes more bitter.
37. Pin thy faith to no man's sleeve: hast thou not two eyes of thine own?
38. I do not love thee, Dr Fell,
The reason why I cannot tell.
39. How doth the little busy bee
Improve each shining hour!
40. Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice;
Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
41. The evil that men do lives after them:
The good is oft interred with their bones.
42. Though little fire grows great with little wind,
Yet extreme gusts will blow out fire and all.
43. Care that has entered once into the breast
Will have the whole possession ere it rest.
44. Chance will not do the work. Chance sends the breeze.
But if the pilot slumber at the helm,
The very wind that wafts us towards the ports
May dash us on the shelves.
45. To know
That which before us lies in daily life
Is the prime wisdom.
46. You take my house, when you do take the prop
That doth sustain my house.
47. O, what a tangled web we weave
When first we practise to deceive!
48. And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew
That one small head could carry all he knew.
49. What's in a name? That which we call a rose
By any other name would smell as sweet.
50. How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
To have a thankless child!
51. Each change of many-coloured life he drew,
Exhausted worlds, and then imagined new.
52. His death eclipsed the gaiety of nations, and impoverished the public stock of harmless pleasure.

53. I could a tale unfold whose lightest word
Would harrow up thy soul.
54. Maid of Athens, ere we part,
Give, oh give me back my heart !
55. How far that little candle throws his beams !
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.
56. The wretch, condemned with life to part,
Still, still on hope relies ;
And every pang that rends the heart
Bids expectation rise.
57. I hear a voice you cannot hear,
Which says I must not stay ;
I see a hand you cannot see,
Which beckons me away.
58. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.
59. How small, of all that human hearts endure,
The part which laws or kings can cause or cure !
60. He prayeth well, who loveth well
Both man and bird and beast.
61. If honour calls, where'er she points the way,
The sons of honour follow and obey.
62. Woe does the heavier sit
Where it perceives it is but faintly borne.
63. Great deeds cannot die ;
They with the sun and moon renew their light,
For ever blessing those that look on them.
64. Music, when soft voices die,
Vibrates in the memory ;
Odours, when sweet violets sicken,
Live within the sense they quicken.
65. Now, reader, you've come to the end,
And how have you fared by the way ?

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